

# *Junior College Journal*

**THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION**

**March 6-8, 1958 : The Pantlind : Grand Rapids, Michigan**

**FEBRUARY 1958 : VOLUME XXVIII : NUMBER 6**

**AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES**

# JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

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FEBRUARY 1958

NUMBER 6

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*JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL* is published monthly from September to May, inclusive. Subscription: \$4.00 a year, 50 cents a copy. Group subscriptions, to faculty of institutions which are members of the American Association of Junior Colleges: \$2.00 a year. Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to James W. Reynolds, College of Education, The University of Texas, P.O. Box 7990, Austin 12, Texas. Correspondence regarding advertisements and subscriptions should be addressed to Jesse B. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Entered as second-class matter November 22, 1928, at the Post Office at Washington, D.C., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Austin, Texas, August 20, 1949.

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# JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME XXVIII

FEBRUARY 1958

NUMBER 6

## The Needs of Junior Colleges in An Expanding Role

JESSE P. BOGUE

NEARLY 1,000,000 students will be enrolled in junior colleges during the 1957-58 college year. In each of the past five years enrollments have increased by an average of about 11 per cent. In 1956-57, there were 869,720 students in these colleges, or a net gain of 104,169. If the record for the past five years is continued, the prediction made in the first sentence will come true.

This expanding role in terms of numbers is significant. It shows that opportunities are being extended to more people to improve themselves through higher education. The most important issues for the future, however, are not primarily concerned with numbers. The following questions must be raised and answered by every junior college:

1. How *well* are the students being educated?
2. How *wisely* are they being counseled and guided?
3. How *realistically* are curriculums being organized to meet the stern demands of the era we are entering?

It goes without saying that higher education must be provided. Deep down in the American conscience a manifesto has been issued to this effect. Equally true, this education must be provided at a price which the taxpayers, constituents of

independent colleges, families and the students can afford to pay. However, too much emphasis has been placed on the economy of junior college education. While it is an important factor, it could be stressed to the point where it would be detrimental to the more important considerations of good quality in education. Under no circumstances must the *quality* of higher education in the junior colleges be inferior. The question is, then, what are we going to do about it?

There are agitations in a number of states for the junior colleges to throw away their conservative estimates for dealing in terms of hundreds of students and come up with plans for dealing with thousands. There are indications in Michigan and New York that higher education in some respects may be radically reorganized. The development of plans for two-year senior colleges with one year of graduate work would inevitably throw onto the junior and community colleges even larger responsibilities than would be the case under the traditional structure of higher education. We believe that this trend toward further experimentation is good. Junior colleges will welcome it.

If the junior colleges are expected to shoulder this responsibility, and it seems inevitable that they will, it is clear that they must have generous financial sup-

port. Within the several states, what possible justification can there be to request the junior colleges to assume the task of educating at least one-half of all students in the first two years of college and in the same breath tell them that finances must come almost entirely from the local communities? Only a very few states are now appropriating funds for physical plants and facilities for junior colleges. On the other hand, all of them provide necessary funds for the educational facilities of state colleges and universities. It seems only fair and just that the states should share in costs on an equal basis with the political subdivisions for physical plants.

If good quality in education is to be the aim of the states, they must come forward with a more realistic formula to provide good facilities than the vast majority have done so far. What is true in terms of tax supported two-year colleges is equally applicable to those of an independent character or those related to the churches. The constituents and the church members must also give greater consideration to the needs of their two-year colleges. For example, we visited a church-related junior college recently, located within 100 miles of a senior college related to the same church body. Multiplied thousands of dollars are being given to the senior college for capital and current expenses, but not a thin dime to the junior college. On what possible grounds can this action be justified? The plain answer is on no grounds. Let us say that junior colleges will educate increasing numbers of students. At the same time we must say that they shall be more liberally supported *in the interest of the students who will attend them.*

Too frequently, those who determine policies and budgets for two-year col-

leges are prone to believe that any services outside classrooms are unjustifiable frills. One of these items is student personnel services. Initial college years are in many respects the most important and critical. Academic and social adjustments, the art and skill of study in college, professional and occupational choices, the whole direction for the student's future are involved. His persistence in college may be at stake. The budgets of most junior colleges known to this writer are woefully lacking in provisions for this kind of necessary service. If we were asked to point out what we have observed as the greatest single weakness of junior colleges across the board, we would say that it is in testing, guidance, counseling, placement, and adequate follow-up services.

Junior colleges now need to take a good hard look at their curriculums in comparison to the stern realities of the era we are entering. Mere matching of university parallel curriculums with senior institutions is not the direction in which to look. Certainly, we should not imitate the curriculums of Russian education, regardless of all that is being said about science and mathematics. Junior college people must see the world in which we are living, attempt to forecast what it will be, and devise the kinds of educational programs students need to deal with it successfully. In our terminal curriculums, there have been strong tendencies to build them in some states to qualify for federal funds for education "of less than college grade." A more realistic look will identify what needs to be done regardless of federal subsidies. In the whole field of education and training for technicians, "education of college grade," we have scarcely scratched the surface.

## Recent State Legislation Affecting Junior Colleges

S. V. MARTORANA

THIS ARTICLE and another to appear in the March, 1958, issue of the *Junior College Journal* will report the sixth biennial survey of the action of state legislatures affecting the community-junior college level of American education. Laws passed will be considered in this article, while the second will be devoted to action considered by the state legislatures which failed to be made into law. Periodically, summaries of surveys of pertinent state legislation have been put forth in publications prepared under the auspices of the American Association of Junior Colleges.<sup>1</sup>

While the earlier studies were conducted entirely as a service of the Association and its Committee on Legislation, the survey published in 1956 was completed under the cooperative auspices of the Association and the Federal Office of Education. The Office of Education this year has initiated an annual compilation of state legislative enactments pertaining to all aspects of higher education, including the community-junior college level. The first of the series covers the 1957 state legislative sessions, and community-junior college legislation reported by the states in the broader report were used chiefly as the basic data source in prepar-

ing this article. However, some legislation passed in the 1956 session is included in this summary but not in the broader study. For further details about legislation passed in 1957 and for the legislative reference numbers of the several enactments passed, interested persons may consult the full Office of Education report.<sup>2</sup>

Legislative enactments affecting junior colleges passed since the last biennial survey are the main subject of this article. Most of these actions occurred during the 1957 legislative sessions since relatively few state legislatures meet in the even-numbered years. No report is made of

<sup>1</sup> See for example:

Hugh G. Price, "Recent Junior College Legislation in Various States," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII, 438-443.

S. V. Martorana, "Recent State Legislation Affecting Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, XX, 241-252; and XXIV, 459-471; and XXVI, 328-341.

S. V. Martorana, "The Legal Status of American Public Junior Colleges," *American Junior Colleges* (4th ed.), Jesse P. Bogue (ed.), Chapter III. (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1956).

<sup>2</sup> E. V. Hollis, William G. Land, and S. V. Martorana, *Survey of State Legislation Relating to Higher Education*, July 1, 1956, to June 30, 1957, Circular No. 511. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Higher Education. (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957).

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legislative appropriation acts which re-appropriated money for state aid to be distributed to the junior colleges according to the formula used in the particular state unless a change in the basic amount of the formula was made. This decision was made on the ground that appropriation acts following established formulas or patterns of distributing funds serve merely to carry on the existing status of the junior college movement in the state and do not change it from that of the past biennium. Besides merely presenting summaries of the legislative actions taken, however, this article also attempts to interpret the findings of the survey in terms of changes in the status of junior colleges as a result of the actions taken and to point out any trends that may be disclosed by the series of studies of the state laws.

As has been true in the preceding studies of this series, data for the report were gathered by direct communication with official agencies such as the state departments of education, secretaries of state, and state boards of higher education. Replies to requests for information were received from all of the 48 states and the territories. Besides acquiring documents of legislation which had been considered in the various states, direct correspondence was carried on with state officials whenever necessary during the preparation of this report to get official interpretation of the legislation enacted or other needed information. In some instances, also, communications were exchanged with administrators of junior colleges to secure information concerning the reactions of the junior college workers to the legislation which affected their institutions.

#### EXTENT OF LEGISLATIVE ACTION

Thirty-eight states considered legislative proposals bearing on the community or junior college level. This figure includes three states which had legislation introduced that failed to become law and 35 states which enacted laws influencing the junior college level. It also includes Alabama and West Virginia which passed only laws calling for statewide surveys of all higher education. Among the 35 states that successfully passed laws were 19 that also had additional bills introduced into the legislatures that were not made law.

The growing attention that the immediate post-high school level of education is attracting in terms of state legislative activity is evident in the striking increase in the number of states considering legislation in this field in 1955 and 1957. In the report covering the 1955 legislative session, it was found that 26 states took action bearing on the junior college level. The studies made of the activity of the 1947, 1949, 1951, and 1953 legislatures showed the number of states reported to have deliberated on enactments dealing with junior colleges ranging from 16 to 18. Between 1953 and 1955, therefore, the level of activity was increased by about 10 states. Between 1955 and 1957, it again jumped by another 12 states so that in this report all but 10 states of the nation are found!

#### LEGISLATION ENACTED

Before relating the effects of recent state legislation on the legal status of junior colleges in the several states, a brief summary of the positive action of the legislatures in each state is presented. Enough data are presented to illustrate the great variety in scope and type of



legislation enacted and to provide an overview of the main features of the laws passed. Of necessity, however, the summaries are brief. Further information may be procured from any one of the designated states by communication with the state department of public instruction or the appropriate secretary of the state. A second article will present a similar state-by-state review of the proposals for legislation that failed to be enacted and an interpretation of the meaning they had to the junior college movement in the nation.

California passed 12 laws pertaining specifically to junior colleges. In addition, it enacted several laws bearing indirectly on them. Among the laws relating directly to the junior colleges were five dealing with district organization for support and control of these institutions. One of these laws required the State Board of Education to establish standards for the formation of junior college districts to include a requirement that the assessed valuation of the area proposed for the district shall be an amount which, upon the levy of a district tax, when added to state financial aid, will be deemed adequate for the junior college's operation. Significant provisions in the other laws relating to district organization were the authorization of formation of unified school districts by vote of the people in the districts when elementary, high school, and junior college districts are coterminous, the providing for withdrawal of joint union high school districts from junior college districts, the confirming of the organization, boundaries, and bonds of the California junior college districts, and a revision of the time of the annual organization meeting of junior college boards.

Another two laws achieved goals of

long standing of California junior colleges. One established a bureau of junior college education in the State Department of Education, and the other provided that the governing boards of school districts and of junior college districts may subscribe for the membership of any school under their jurisdiction in any educational association or organization approved by the State Board of Education.

Two of the California laws related to other phases of junior college financing, one providing that the acceptance of gifts and bequests made to junior colleges or to districts maintaining junior colleges shall not depend on acts of other state agencies or affect apportionment from the state school fund, and another amending the existing law relating to payment of tuition and transportation expenses for students in grades 13 and 14 who are attending a junior college in districts or counties of which they are not residents. The amendment authorizes payment of the actual transportation expenses, the total current expenses, and an amount equal to \$300 per unit of average daily attendance for non-resident students for use of buildings and equipment.

The remaining three laws provided first, that whenever a cafeteria in a junior college is used as a laboratory or classroom for the quantity preparation of food, the governing board may make financial and administrative arrangements to cover the use of the cafeteria as a laboratory or classroom and the disposition or sale of the food prepared; second, that high schools and junior colleges may give instruction by awarding credit for work experience, and that standards for such work experience shall be established by the State Board of Education; and, finally,

that the State Department of Mental Hygiene shall contract, within the limit of available funds, with public and private universities, colleges, junior colleges, and hospitals for educational and training programs in order to assure an adequate number of qualified psychiatrists, physicians and surgeons, psychologists, nurses, social workers, laboratory and other technicians, and ancillary workers.

Bearing less directly on the California junior college was a bill broadening the authority of the state colleges, with state supervisory approval, to establish extension field services, including workshops, conferences, and institutes. Interest in further development of state colleges in California is evident also in the law calling for a new state college in Alameda County, Orange County, and the North San Francisco Bay area. It is interesting to note that 17 other bills to establish state colleges were introduced but *not* enacted in the 1957 California legislature.

Attention should also be directed to the action of California's legislature requesting further efforts in institutional planning for higher education. Ten different legislative resolutions of this type were passed. One, for example, requested the Assembly Interim Committee on Education to study the need for facilities, sites, and curricula in higher education. Another requested the Department of Education and the Assembly Interim Committee on Education to report in 1959 on the need for additional higher education facilities in the counties of San Mateo, Santa Cruz, Monterey, and San Benito. The other resolutions called for similar investigative efforts by the Department of Education or the Regents of the State University to study need for expanded

higher education facilities in various parts of the state.

*Colorado* amended existing law so as to permit school boards of public school districts and also committees of junior college districts to maintain capital reserve building funds for the purpose of paying all or part of the cost of planned future building programs. The law allows tax funds, gifts, tuition, and unexpended balances to be credited to such reserve funds. Another amendment passed provided for the organization of junior college districts with the approval of the State Board of Education, provided that the area to be in the district has a school population of 3,500 or more and an assessed valuation of at least \$20,000,000, and to allow parts of counties to become a part of a junior college district. It also required a majority vote of the electors in the proposed district. Finally, as part of the Public School Foundation Act, junior college districts are now to receive direct grants of \$1,050 for each seven full-time equivalent students carrying an average of 45 quarter-hours or 30 semester-hours of credit. This is an increase of \$150 over the amount previously allowed.

*Connecticut* provided for a two-year bond issue for constructing and equipping a state technical institute to be located in Norwalk and to provide advanced technical training for high school and technical school graduates in the southeastern part of the state.

*Florida* passed three laws bearing directly on junior colleges. The first of these, based on the report of the Community College Council established by the 1955 legislature, amended existing laws relating to junior colleges, defining them as parts of county school systems to offer

general, classical, and scientific courses as well as terminal programs and courses for adults. Counties or contiguous counties may establish or acquire a junior college on approval of the State Board of Education but may not acquire or establish courses beyond the sophomore level. The law also prescribes methods for their establishment and operation, including a provision for allotments from the state Minimum Foundation Program on the basis of "instruction units" covering salaries, transportation, operating expenses, and capital outlay. A junior college instruction unit is set at 12 students in average daily attendance. A second law appropriated funds amounting to approximately 8 and one-fourth million dollars for building construction at four existing junior colleges, and six new junior colleges authorized by the 1957 legislature for establishment. The third amended an existing law and made an appropriation to provide a program of scholarship loans for professional and practical nursing education. Included in the program were 140 \$300 scholarships for three years' training at approved diploma schools or junior colleges in the state, and 86 \$500 scholarships for four years at approved basic collegiate schools of nursing in the state. One-half of these scholarships are to be awarded to students pledging their services to a state institution or agency.

Indirectly related to the junior colleges was a law creating the Florida Educational Television Commission and authorizing, among its other activities, assistance to local and state educational agencies in making surveys pertaining to the use and economics of educational television, including the fields of college level education and adult education.

*Georgia* created a State Junior College Study Committee of nine appointed members with necessary staff to study the need for one or more junior colleges, their estimated costs, and the methods of control and operation by the State Board of Education or by the Board of Regents of the University system and also to study the needs of the Extension Service of the University of Georgia College of Agriculture. A report of the study is to be submitted by January, 1958.

*Idaho* made three amendments to existing laws, the first prescribing a six-year term for members of boards of trustees of junior college districts and providing for biennial elections; a second allowing for employee participation in the federal Social Security program, making specific reference to junior colleges, the Board of Regents, and other higher education agencies; and a third relating to the maximum tax to be levied in junior college districts without vote of the school electors. This law allows a tax of up to 80 cents on each \$100 of assessed valuation. It also changes the tuition rate for residents of junior college districts so as to be not less than \$50 nor more than \$75 a year. For non-residents, the tuition must be at least \$75 a year. Idaho also enacted legislation for Dormitory Housing Commissions in junior college districts to construct, lease, and operate dormitory housing projects and to contract with the junior colleges for the management and supervision of the dormitory. The law provides for bond issues by the Commissions with six per cent maximum interest rate and for borrowing other money and accepting financial assistance from the federal government.

*Illinois* enacted four laws amending ex-

isting legislation, first, to enable certain school districts to enter into agreements for the joint establishment and maintenance of a junior college, provided that the voters of the participating districts approve and a survey by the State Department of Public Instruction justifies a joint junior college; second, to allow one junior college to be established by contract in a county having districts of less than 10,000 population; third, to raise the apportionment allowed to school districts which maintain a junior college, or provide tuition for pupils in a junior college in another district, from \$100 per pupil in attendance in 1954-55 to \$200 per pupil in attendance in 1956-57; and, fourth, to change the method of establishing a junior college district in school districts having less than 500,000 population which maintain four-year high schools, and provide for levying taxes for junior college educational purposes not to exceed 1¾ mills.

Illinois also formulated a bipartisan Illinois Commission on Higher Education consisting of nine appointed members on six-year terms and made an appropriation to the Commission. Its duties are to analyze future aims and trends of higher education in the state, to study requests for appropriations, making recommendations to the governor and the General Assembly, to study financing and plant operation, and to study the role and need for different types of institutions and programs. The Commission is to report annually on its activities. The act also provides for an advisory Committee of Delegates representing public and private institutions of higher education and junior colleges.

The state also established an appointed

State Scholarship Commission of seven members representing various educational interests to administer a competitive scholarship program for needy Illinois high school graduates who are above the median for their class. Scholarships are to be apportioned partly by senatorial and representative districts and partly at large, to be for \$600 or the annual amount of tuition and fees, whichever is the smaller, and to be renewable for a total of four years. Recipients may attend any two-year or four-year college located in the state.

*Iowa*, as part of an appropriation act, increased existing law so as to increase the amount of aid to public junior colleges and to establish standards of approval of junior colleges as a condition of receiving such aid. The standards are to be established jointly by the State Board of Public Instruction and the State Board of Regents, and are to be enforced by the former. The level of state aid was raised from \$.25 to \$1.00 per student per day of average daily attendance.

*Kansas* passed a law authorizing tuition payments out of general county high school funds for pupils attending high school extension (junior college) courses in adjoining or adjacent counties as well as in the county of residence. Another enactment permits a special 1½ mill county tax levy for junior college support, following ratification by the electorate. It also provides for the election of advisory boards to participate in deliberations regarding junior colleges. The 1957 legislature also directed the Kansas Legislative Council to make a study of the state educational system, including the college and university levels, and to report with recommendations on organization, ad-



ministration, use of facilities and financing.

*Louisiana*, in its 1957 legislature, made an appropriation of \$60,000 to Francis T. Nicholls College at Thibodaux to defray the cost of transferring the college from the supervision of Louisiana State University and converting it to a four-year college. It also established a branch or extension of Southern University to be located in the New Orleans area and provided \$1,050,000 for acquiring a site and for constructing and equipping buildings. Louisiana also authorized the Governor to appoint four citizens from Orleans Parish, two from Jefferson Parish, and one from St. Bernard Parish to a committee to assist the Board of Supervisors of Louisiana State University in establishing a Metropolitan Commuters College in the New Orleans area. Finally, it broadened the powers of the Joint Legislative Committee which had been established by the 1956 legislature to study the reconstitution of a Coordinating Council for Higher Education and providing funds for its operation.

*Maine* passed an amendment to existing law to include junior colleges or similar post-secondary educational institutions seeking authority to grant an associate degree and otherwise to restrict the use of the terms "junior college," "college," and "university" to institutions having the legal right to grant degrees. The legislature also authorized the State Board of Education to establish state schools for practical nursing.

*Maryland* enacted a law providing that the County Commissioners of Charles County shall appropriate \$200 each for the tuition of a maximum of 200 students at any junior college established in that

county. Two legislative resolutions requested, first, the State Department of Education to make a study of the desirability of planning for post-high school education in Allegheny County to meet the employment requirements of industry; and, second, the Governor to refer to the Commission on Higher Education the entire program of state aid to education beyond the secondary school level. The latter resolution also requested the State Department of Education and the presidents of the University of Maryland and of Morgan State College to report on the costs of higher education in the state.

*Massachusetts* established the first state aid for the junior college level by authorizing the state to pay one-half of the net maintenance sum up to \$100 per student, after deducting tuition payments, to cities and towns maintaining extended courses of instruction which have been approved by the Commissioner of Education. The legislature also provided for the establishment of local community colleges and created a Community College Commission. Under this second act, it also authorized the University of Massachusetts to establish and maintain junior colleges.

*Michigan* amended the property tax limitation law so as to provide 1/1000 of a mill as the minimum tax rate for community college districts organized after April 15, 1957. This law also provides that if the district has voted to increase its total tax limitation beyond the 15-mill limit, the county tax allocation board shall not allocate the minimum amount but the community college district shall raise all of its tax revenue from the increase. Michigan also extended its general community college enabling acts so as to provide that a board of trustees may, among

other things, (a) construct stadiums, gymnasiums, auditoriums, and residence halls; (b) issue bonds up to 15 per cent of the total state valuation of the district, upon approval of the electorate; (c) issue four-year revenue bonds to finance self-liquidating projects such as dining halls, athletic and recreational facilities, student services, and residence halls; (d) borrow money or property and accept federal grants and other assistance; and (e) levy millage over the 15-mill limitation for a period not exceeding 20 years upon approval of the electors of the district. The act establishes a controlling board of six members and provides procedures for annexing one or more counties to a county community college district.

*Minnesota* in 1957 initiated a new state aid program authorizing the State Board of Education to pay to public school districts maintaining junior colleges \$200 annually per student in average daily attendance, provided that tuition for non-residents shall be set at  $\frac{5}{6}$  of the state teachers college tuition and tuition for residents shall be  $\frac{3}{4}$  of that charged to non-residents. State aid is denied to any junior college hereafter established within 36 miles of an existing junior college or state teachers college. Minnesota also created a commission of ten members of the legislature to study matters relating to the schools of agriculture of the University of Minnesota located at Crookston, Morris, Waseca, and Grand Rapids, and specifically the alternatives of continuing these institutions on the present or a modified basis, the addition of two years to the present programs, or the substitution of two years of collegiate instruction in place of the present programs. The commission is to report by January 15,

1959. The legislature also formulated a temporary Legislative Commission on Higher Education of seven appointed members to make a comprehensive study of the available facilities in the state and the factors contributing toward the development of a program to meet the needs of higher education. Consideration is to be given to equality of opportunity and preparation, equitable distribution of financing, preservation of public and private institutions in general, and the place of the University of Minnesota in higher learning and research. Recommendations are to be made to the 1959 legislature.

*Nebraska* amended the teacher certification law so as to provide, among other changes, that no Nebraska certificate or permit shall be required of persons teaching exclusively in public junior colleges.

*Nevada* established "Nevada Southern" as a branch of the University of Nevada and also provided that extension instruction on the college level and research and service activities may be conducted throughout the state.

*New Jersey* by joint legislative resolution directed the Commission on State Tax Policy to study the need for adequate state aid for adult education and to report to the 1958 legislature.

*New Mexico* defined the community college level as covering the thirteenth and fourteenth years of education and provided that a determination of need for a community college may be made by a municipal or county board of education, following which an agreement is to be reached between the board and the board of regents of the higher education institution selected to be the parent institution, subject to the approval of the State Board of Education. Public school facilities are

to be made available to community colleges, but no public school funds may be expended in the community college program. Financing shall be by tuition and fees and other available funds.

*New York* amended the basic Community College Law so as to provide that whenever a plan for the establishment of a community college shall have been formulated by a county board of supervisors, and approved by the board of trustees of the state university, the board of supervisors may submit the proposal to a referendum at a general election, and, further, that when the Board of Higher Education is the local sponsor of a community college in New York City, the salaries shall be in accordance with the salary schedule approved by the Board of Estimate. Another act repeals an article of the Education Law relating to State Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences and amends the Community College Law so that, in any of the community colleges established on the discontinuance of a State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences or of the Veterans Vocational School at Troy, the provision of general education sufficient for transfer to institutions providing regular four-year courses shall be at the option of the local sponsor.

Three pieces of specific legislation were also enacted, the first providing that the local sponsor of community colleges in New York City, rather than their teachers, officers, or employees, shall be liable for damage arising from negligence in the performance of duty; the second establishing a tenure system for the staff of the Fashion Institute of Technology, a community college sponsored by the New York City Board of Education; and the

third authorizing the grant of easements over lands in Dutchess County which are the property of the State University Agricultural and Technical Institute at Farmingdale. Another similar law creates the Nassau County Temporary Commission on Collegiate Education consisting of seven citizens appointed by the County Executive to inquire into all the public and private educational facilities which are available to Nassau County students, to study the present and future needs of these students and the cost to the county of any proposals for higher educational facilities. Reports are to be made to the County Executive.

*North Carolina* provided for the charter, organization, and operation of community colleges and authorized taxes and local bond issues for their support. Community colleges are defined as institutions for offering lower-division collegiate courses and technical institute programs of college grade. The act also provides for state aid towards instruction in academic subjects on a student-hour basis to an amount to equal but not exceed that representing local public and private (excluding student fees and charges) funds for the colleges' operation. State appropriations for capital improvements on a similar matching fund basis were granted. Provisional approval and state aid funds were given to three existing junior colleges: Asheville-Biltmore, Charlotte (including Carver), and Wilmington.

*North Dakota* amended existing law relating to the publication of standards for junior colleges by the State Board of Higher Education so as to include trade courses, and provided for the inspection and accreditation of such courses of study. It also amended existing law relating to

the conditions of payment of revenue bonds issued by the State Board of Higher Education for the construction of college buildings. The 1957 legislature authorized the State Board of Higher Education to issue bonds for the construction of dormitories and student buildings at seven institutions, as previously authorized. Authority was granted for a one mill tax to be voted on at the 1958 general election, this tax to be used to provide funds for building construction at institutions under the control of the State Board of Higher Education. A legislative resolution also authorized and directed the Legislative Research Committee to study the organization, administration, financial resources and statutes, and other matters affecting education in the state, including junior colleges and higher education.

*Oklahoma* granted authority to cities to make gifts of real estate to any institution of the Oklahoma State System of Higher Education located in the city. It also amended existing law so as to provide that the Board of Regents of the Oklahoma College for Women, Oklahoma Military Academy and Northern Oklahoma Junior College may issue 40-year bonds for constructing and equipping self-liquidating building projects. Similarly, the Board of Regents of the Oklahoma Military Academy may set aside land for building dormitories, dining halls, auditoriums, student union buildings, field houses, stadiums, and utility systems and may construct such buildings and issue 40-year, five per cent revenue bonds, including refunding issues, payable solely from the revenues of such buildings. A legislative resolution was approved requesting the Board of Regents to study the need for two additional years

of the academic curriculum now offered at Eastern Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College at Wilburton as a four-year degree program.

*Oregon* extended its community college law by defining a community college as a public school for the purpose of providing courses of study beyond those of the twelfth grade but not exceeding two years beyond that grade and provided detailed procedures for the establishment and operation of community colleges either by school districts or by community college districts. The act includes a provision for contracting by local school system with the State Department of Higher Education, acting through the State Board of Higher Education, to hold classes of lower division collegiate grade. It also provides for change in boundaries of community college districts. Criteria to be met by a school district or community college district include *all* of the following: at least \$20,000,000 cash value of taxable property, at least 500 students in grades 9-12, available modern building space, an adequate library, suitable laboratory and shop space, approval by the State Board of Education. The State Department of Public Instruction is authorized to make local surveys of need. The act also provides for state aid to an amount of \$4.17 per term hour of classes approved by the State Board of Education completed by a student who is a resident of Oregon, or 25 per cent of the operating expenses of the college, whichever is less. Appropriations for this aid are limited to \$90,000 a biennium. Two other more specific laws were passed, one providing for the administration of extension service funds and their use under the supervision of Oregon State College in



cities of 8,000 population or the school districts or counties in which such cities are situated, and another amending existing law so as to make new provisions regarding the operation of the Oregon Technical Institute in Klamath County under the control of the State Board of Education. Oregon also established a special legislative Interim Education Study Committee of nine members appointed by the presiding officers of the legislature and by the Governor to study the problems of education in Oregon, including problems of post-high school educational, vocational needs, and state financial and supervisory assistance to community colleges.

*South Carolina* organized the Florence County Higher Education Commission of five appointed members, with educators in Florence County as ex-officio members, to enter into contracts with the University of South Carolina for the establishment and operation of an extension center at Florence and to obtain suitable facilities. It also directed the Commission to appoint an advisory committee and made an initial appropriation of \$20,000.

*Tennessee* established a branch of the University of Tennessee at Martin to be known as The University of Tennessee, Martin Branch, and also authorized the Board of Trustees of the University of Tennessee and the State Board of Education to prescribe rules, regulations, and requirements for the admission of students to colleges and universities and to programs of instruction offered by the colleges and universities or their branches.

*Texas* revised its appropriations determination to a basis of \$230 per full-time student for each of the first 350 students and \$175 for each full-time student

in excess of 350. This represents an increase of \$15 per student on those in excess of 350 in a given school. It also passed four laws relating directly to junior colleges and one indirectly related. One of the laws amends existing law so as to provide that junior college districts may charge fees to students and others for the use of classroom or other instructional buildings and to authorize such revenue to be used to pay principal and interest on bonds. Another amendment to the existing legislation related to the annexation of school districts to certain junior college districts so that additional members of boards of trustees over 10 will be added in relation to the assessed valuation of the original and annexed districts. Texas junior college districts were authorized to issue 40-year five per cent refunding bonds approved by the attorney general. The fourth enactment required newspaper publication of annual financial reports from junior college districts, school districts, and others. Less directly related to junior colleges was the law authorizing the Board of Directors of Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College to use funds for an adjunct in Kimble County.

*Utah* gave legislative approval to organization of a Coordinating Board for Higher Education of 13 members representing legislative, institutional, and general interests, to serve until June, 1959. Under the supervision of the Legislative Council, the Board is to formulate a statement of educational objectives and to appraise existing programs of higher education and other post-high school programs with a recommendation of procedures for integrating all programs into a state system of higher education. Among

other duties, the Board is also to determine the relationship of existing institutions, both public and private, to study the need for institutional expansion or curtailment, to study financial practices and capital outlay needs and requests for special programs of research, extension and experimentation, and to study future educational needs. A report is to be submitted to the Legislative Council in September, 1958.

*Vermont* changed the name of the State School of Agriculture at Randolph to The Vermont Agricultural and Technical Institute and provided that it shall offer to high school graduates a two-year program of technical courses in agriculture, highway engineering, and electrical technology. A representative board of trustees of five members was established and slightly over \$236,000 was appropriated for operation of the institution.

*Washington* now requires by law that the State Census Board shall maintain student enrollment forecasts of Washington schools, including both public and private schools, colleges and universities, to be reported biennially to the legislative budget committee.

*West Virginia*, by a Senate Concurrent Resolution, established that the Joint Committee on Government and Finance and the Commission on Interstate Cooperation (with an advisory and coordinating committee of the West Virginia University Board of Governors and the State Board of Education) are to make a study of institutions of higher education to obtain information on (a) present needs and cost as compared to the national average and trend, (b) whether these needs are being met, (c) how to meet future needs and the cost thereof,

and (d) the possible reduction of costs by combining the responsibility, authority, and activities of state agencies. The study is to be summarized in a manual reflecting the needs and costs of five-year and ten-year programs, and is to be completed and made public by November 1, 1957.

*Wisconsin* extended the taxing and bonding power of counties to include incurring bonded indebtedness for the purpose of erecting buildings to be used by the University of Wisconsin as extension class centers. Total indebtedness for all purposes is limited to 1½ per cent of the value of the taxable property in the county.

*Wyoming* made an appropriation of \$80,000 for the biennium to the University of Wyoming for the employment of seven teachers at the junior and community colleges located at Casper, Sheridan, Powell, and Torrington. Two of the staff members employed were to be at each of the first three institutions and one at the last. The teachers were to be selected by the several colleges subject to the approval of the university trustees. The legislature also amended existing law to provide for the enlargement of community college districts by annexation. Annexation requires a petition of 10 per cent of the voters, a favorable resolution by the board of the community college district, and a favorable vote of the electorate in the district to be annexed. Community college district boards were also authorized to make contracts with other educational institutions. The law further created a representative Community College Commission made up of the president of the state university, the dean of the adult education and community service division of the state university, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the

Commissioner of Education, the directors of each community college, one other member to be a resident of a community college district, the executive head of any junior college or university center, and one other member appointed by the board of trustees of a school district maintaining a junior college.

A scholarship program for teacher trainees was also established. It provided for 200 scholarships of \$250 each to be granted by the State Board of Education to graduates of Wyoming high schools on the basis of scholastic aptitude, financial need, and character to be used at the University of Wyoming or any accredited junior or community college in the state. A minimum of two scholarships will be awarded in each county from which applications are received. Preference is to be given, within the total number of scholarships available, to the renewal of existing grants. Repayment without interest is to be made within five years of award, but a credit of \$250 is to be given for each year of teaching in a public school in the state providing that this teaching shall immediately follow the completion of the teacher training program. The act makes an initial appropriation of \$50,000.

#### CONCLUSION: LEGAL STATUS OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

Several observations that merit the attention of community-junior college workers can be made about the legislation reviewed in this report. Some describe the trends and shifts in the legal status of the community-junior college from the situation as seen in the earlier reports of this series. Others identify elements in the character of the legislation that appear to have special significance to

the direction which the community-junior college movement may take in future years.

Of primary notice is the fact that two new states can be added to the list of 26 and the Territory of Alaska reported to have general legislation for community-junior colleges in the last edition of the reference volume *American Junior Colleges*.<sup>3</sup> These are North Carolina and New Mexico, the former authorizing local public junior colleges under the general supervision of the State Board of Higher Education, and the latter granting general permission to local school systems to contract with four-year colleges and universities for providing opportunities for post-high school study.

The general ferment in post-high school education over the nation is evident in the fact that 14 states through their legislatures called for studies and surveys of their higher educational systems. In some instances, for example, in Alabama, Kansas, Maryland, North Dakota, Oregon, and West Virginia, these called for study of the total situation in higher education or for consideration of general or broad problem areas. In others, such as in California, New York, and Washington, they were directed toward specific or local problems. An insight into a growing problem area involving post-high school educational institutions is seen in that three studies were required to consider the particular matter of statewide and inter-institutional coordination of higher institutions. Two of the projects, those in Georgia and Minnesota, are to have as their major concern the junior college level of education.

<sup>3</sup> *American Junior Colleges*, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

As all junior college workers know, securing adequate financing for these institutions is a persistent difficulty. They may perhaps receive some reassurance in the fact that five states have newly established state financial aid programs for junior colleges. These are Massachusetts, Minnesota, North Carolina, Oregon, and Wyoming. In addition, others, for example, Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Michigan, Illinois, and Iowa, have increased existing programs of state support. Furthermore, state enactments authorizing greater local powers for financing junior colleges indicate growing efforts toward broadening their financial bases. Such laws are illustrated in the action taken on local taxing powers by Kansas, Idaho, and Michigan legislatures. In this connection, too, Kansas' new law authorizing non-junior college districts where students reside to pay the tuition of these students to junior colleges supported by other districts is noteworthy.

Another aspect of the topic of financing junior colleges is the provision of state aid and authority for local bonding power to provide physical plant and facilities. North Carolina in 1957 for the first time initiated a program of state assistance to meet capital costs. Though not listed among the acts reported in this article because they were not new steps taken, the actions of the legislatures of such states as Florida, Michigan, and Mississippi which had established a pattern of aid for buildings in raising their appropriations is significant. Authorization by several states granting the junior colleges power or establishing machinery for them to issue self-liquidating revenue bonds is related to this total topic of financing building needs. Idaho, North Dakota, Oklahoma,

and Texas illustrate such enactments. Interestingly, Texas authorized charging student fees for liquidating bonds for classrooms as well as for student housing facilities.

At the conclusion of the legislation report in the 1956 *Junior College Journal*, it was observed that much attention was being given to the fundamental issue of district organization for support and control of junior colleges. This continues to be a dynamic area for legislative activity. In this article, three states (Colorado, Illinois, and Oregon) are found reported to have authorized autonomous junior college districts. In addition, Florida included in its new legislation again its plan of joint county support of junior colleges in situations approved by the State Department of Education. Michigan's 1957 law expanded the powers of the county junior college districts and set up procedures for annexing new territory to the districts. California, Texas, and Wyoming also had revisions to their acts dealing with annexation of area to junior college districts. Indeed, the history of California junior colleges well illustrates the persistency and complexity of district organization for junior colleges from which other states may well profit.

Finally to be noted is a continuing conflict with respect to the proper agency for control of the junior college level of education. This, too, is a long-standing issue centering chiefly between local auspices for control and those under four-year, degree-granting colleges and universities. This report shows that Nevada, South Carolina, and Tennessee established branches of baccalaureate higher institutions and Texas authorized a state higher institution to use funds for operation of a

branch. Significant also is the action of the New Mexico legislature which established general legislation and procedures whereby local school districts can contract with higher institutions on a continuing basis for providing some of the usual community college services. Oregon authorized a similar plan, but it should be noted that in this case the contract must be limited to a five-year period, and if standards for an independent community college are met, the district may elect to establish one.

In view of these conclusions, a recommendation may be advanced that the

American Association of Junior Colleges, through its Committee on Legislation, along with such other interested agencies as state and regional associations and professional educational workers in the field, undertake and encourage objective research projects and other efforts toward two goals: (1) the determination of the most effective scheme of district organization for support and control of junior colleges, and (2) the relative advantages and disadvantages of locally controlled junior colleges as opposed to units that operate as extension or branch centers of four-year colleges and universities.

# Principles for Organizing and Administering the Registrar's Office in Private Junior Colleges\*

ROLAND H. LEWIS AND LEON N. HENDERSON

ONE OF the newest administrative positions in the American college is that of the registrar. Persons newly assigned to this responsible function find a paucity of material to assist them in organizing their offices or in carrying out their duties. Junior college registrars find a greater dearth of information suitable to the philosophy of their institutions than do similar administrators in the four-year college or university.

Information presented in this article was developed from several sources. After diligent research, the author of the dissertation cited herewith secured and read every article he could locate on the subject of the registrar's work, junior college, senior college, or university. From these sources he prepared a 423-item questionnaire which he sent to the 209 private junior colleges in the nation which agreed to cooperate in the study. Usable replies were received from 107 institutions whose distribution in size, location, and other important characteristics closely paralleled the entire private junior college

population. A key was used by which the registrars (or other college administrators) could rate the value of each duty in registrars' offices and could indicate whether or not they performed it. By studying the values thus assigned, certain principles have been established that can serve as general guides for organizing and administering private junior college registrars' offices.

The study was organized under ten divisions, and the principles suggested in this article are set forth under the same headings. The first three subjects, however, might be further grouped as those which concern the organizing, equipping, and staffing of the office. Should the next four be grouped, one would find general agreement that they should be performed in the private junior college registrar's office. The last three divisions bring together the duties about which there is a wide divergence of opinion, or, on the other hand, considerable agreement that they should not normally be assigned to the registrar of a private junior college.

Perhaps the one principle of greatest importance in a study like this grows out

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\* This article is based on the dissertation, "A Study to Develop Criteria for Organizing or Evaluating a Private Junior College Registrar's Office," by Roland H. Lewis.



of the fact that various institutions differ widely in size, operate in different philosophical climates, have different administrative arrangements, and exist for widely divergent purposes. For these and other reasons, it is not possible for any statement of principles, any set of criteria, or any list of duties to apply equally to all. Because of personal qualifications or unique situations, it might be advisable for some institutions to disregard some of these principles, but it would be unwise for such a procedure to occur without due consciousness of possible inherent dangers.

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE ORGANIZATION OF THE OFFICE

1. *For greatest efficiency in his office and the institution, the registrar should have direct access to the president.* This principle appeared frequently in the registrars' literature. On the questionnaire used in this writer's study it rated sixteenth out of the possible 423. Ninety-six per cent of the respondents in the study did have the access they recommended. If the registrar is as creative and statesman-like in his office as he should be, the president and the institution rather than the registrar would be hindered by any other arrangement since his information would otherwise flow to the president less expeditiously.

2. *Functions which must be included in the registrar's office for greatest efficiency are records and reports, registration, statistics, and admissions. Those which should not be in the office are publications, business managership, and student recruitment (unless considerable technical help is available in his office).*

a. Records and Reports—The respondents from private junior colleges rated no

other functions as important as those involving records and reports. More registrars were performing these functions than any others.

b. Registration—The supreme test of the registrar's ability as an administrator is his adeptness in achieving smooth, personal, flexible, and efficient registrations. To presume that a function as complicated as registration can be performed without efficient supervision is folly, and to assign the duty to someone besides the registrar would deny the need for a registrar—perhaps a recorder, but not a registrar.

c. Statistics—To assign a clerk to file records in a routine manner instead of placing them at the disposal of a researcher with the ability and authority of an administrator tends to be unwise administration.

The registrar is the custodian of the richest storehouse of material connected with an educational institution. He who has the imagination and the vision to convert his storehouse into a laboratory for the intelligent study of educational problems, to organize these data so as to make them available to the administration, will make for himself a job which virtually has no limitation.<sup>1</sup>

d. Admissions—There is a tendency to divide the work of the registrar and set up a separate office of admissions. This leads to divided authority and creates unnecessary overlapping of duties or unjustifiable divisions between kindred duties, and frequently confusion results.

e. Publications—Except for the catalog, the respondents in this study believed

<sup>1</sup> Fred L. Kerr, "The Registrar and His Professional Duties," *Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XI (January, 1936), 102-106.

that responsibility for publications would hinder the performance of duties more essential to efficiency in the registrar's office.

f. Business Managership—Of the suggested functions a registrar might perform, none was rated lower by private junior college registrars than those of the business manager. They felt that there was a danger the financial interests of the college would make such heavy demands upon his attention that the registrar would permit academic records and educational accounting to become secondary while giving the business affairs his primary attention.

g. Student Recruitment—This work is closely akin to admissions and other duties of the registrar. If he has enough technically trained assistants the registrar may be able to handle recruitment efficiently. In private junior colleges, the registrars thought it frequently could be more satisfactorily handled by another officer.

3. *The registrar's office should have a manual:* (a) *describing the procedure for handling each operation in the office;* (b) *showing routine and related operations for each report, each kind of letter, and each form;* and (c) *containing a complete job-analysis for each person in the office.* A manual thus prepared serves several purposes. It assures that every function of the office has been analyzed, thus tending to eliminate unnecessary or uneconomical operations; it also provides a guide by which new personnel can be assigned and become more productive and efficient; and it assures that the registrar's successor will not have to enter the job "cold."

4. *In a small college where a combination of functions is necessary, the combi-*

*nation might be registrar with dean, with teacher (few classes), or with dean of students. It should not be with a secretary to an administrator, with a teacher (teaching nearly a full load), or with the business manager.* Registrars' literature dealing with functions in the registrar's office agrees closely with junior college registrars' opinions of acceptable combinations. In small colleges where combinations of functions are necessary, the registrars were slightly (but not appreciably) more willing to accept a registrar-business manager combination than they were under other conditions. They were even more willing to accept a registrar-business manager combination than a registrar's carrying a heavy teaching load. Only eleven of the 423 functions in the questionnaire were rated lower than a registrar's carrying nearly a full teaching load. Registrar-secretary combinations were also unacceptable in the registrars' opinions. The combination most acceptable was that of dean-registrar.

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF PERSONNEL IN THE OFFICE

1. *The registrar and his personnel should have the ability to be accurate.* The soundness of the records determines the accuracy of all conclusions based on them. Students, alumni, the staff of the college, and responsible persons in other colleges will tend to lose confidence in an office where records frequently show errors.

2. *The registrar should have at least a bachelor's degree and preferably a master's degree.* The suggestion that a person with no degree be appointed registrar was rejected by junior college registrars with

as much vehemence as they rejected the duties of business manager. No items in the entire study rated lower than these two. The registrar must be a scholar to work most effectively with the scholars with whom he is constantly associated. His very work and problems have to do with the mechanism of scholarship and education.

3. *The registrar should allow time and money to study new trends and developments and to keep abreast of current educational thought.* This may be approached in several ways: he should maintain and use as complete a professional library as possible; he would do well to attend and participate in state, regional, and national registrars' meetings; and he should prevent the details of his office from robbing him of time for meditation and planning. It is gross maladministration to secure a registrar with advanced degrees and specialized training and then have him bury himself so deeply in clerical details that he has no time for creative leadership.

4. *The registrar should be emotionally mature.* The truth of this assertion is so obvious it would seem unnecessary, but to appoint as registrar a person lacking emotional maturity could bring disaster to the administration in an institution as small as most private junior colleges.

5. *The registrar should be trained by some effective method for his job before being assigned to it.* The American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers has recommended 14 general fields of training:

History of education, higher education, curriculum development, educational measurements, statistics, educational administration, public relations, counseling procedures, stu-

dent personnel work, communications techniques, and administration of the admissions-registrar functions in standard colleges and universities.<sup>2</sup>

#### PRINCIPLES RELATING TO EQUIPMENT AND FACILITIES IN THE OFFICE

1. *The registrar should have whatever equipment and facilities are necessary to assure efficient operation of his office.* This study of private junior college registrars' offices revealed that in the overall picture the registrars thought they needed a 200 per cent increase in money available to their offices for equipment and other facilities, excluding salaries. Most registrars needed additional space and a separation of the space into at least two offices. The 200 per cent increase does not indicate the amount of equipment desired so much as it suggests the amount registrars are presently doing without.

2. *The registrar's office should be arranged for maximum efficiency.*

3. *The registrar's office should adjoin the dean's office and the central file and should be convenient to the dean of students' office and the business office.*

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING ADMISSIONS POLICIES

1. *For greatest efficiency, the registrar should be the admissions officer and should be a member (preferably chairman) of any committee that determines admission policies and any committee that determines who shall be admitted.* As early as 1912, C. M. McConn listed the following areas of admissions: (1) pre-

<sup>2</sup> D. T. Ordeman (Chairman), *Policies and Procedures*, American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, 1953, Eb 1.

liminary correspondence, (2) approving secondary school certificates, (3) conduct of entrance examinations, and (4) determination of advanced standing. He then observed (with administrative wisdom) that to separate these functions into different offices would require more than one administrator to study the same problem, would require referrals for "further reply," and would increase the possibility of contradictory or seemingly contradictory statements. The respondents in this study of private junior colleges unequivocally assigned to the registrar the duties of determining advanced standing, of evaluating high school credits, and of carrying on *some* correspondence with applicants. With somewhat less finality, they also considered the testing program as belonging to the registrar and thought he should be *in charge* of correspondence with prospective students.

2. *The admissions committee should establish admission regulations to harmonize with the stated objectives of the college.* Good administration calls for a careful evaluation of the reasons behind admissions requirements. They should serve to admit the most desirable and exclude the least desirable in the light of the institution's individual purposes and philosophy.

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING REGISTRATION RESPONSIBILITIES

1. *The registration procedure should be meticulously planned and efficiently executed.* Three steps may contribute substantially to achieving the desired quality of registrations.

a. *The registrar should prepare detailed instructions for the students who will register.*

b. *He should prepare guidance information summarizing students' records and abilities to be used by faculty advisers in registering students.*

c. *The registrar should prepare detailed instructions for faculty advisers to use during registration.*

Faculty members tend to consider registration a chore. For that reason, the registrar should accept the challenge to provide democratic leadership and make available in an effective manner a complete explanation of the procedure and the "why" of each function. Faculty cooperation in this planning is almost a matter of necessity. The added service rendered to the students and consequently to the college will justify the energy expended.

2. *For greatest efficiency in his office and in the institution, the registrar should not perform any registration function dealing with financial matters.* In some of the literature there was a suggestion that the registrar should assess fees and the business manager collect them, but the registrars strongly disagreed with such a plan. This conviction agreed with the findings of a similar study made of public junior colleges by A. M. Gignilliat.<sup>3</sup>

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE ADMINISTRATION OF RECORDS AND REPORTS

1. *The registrar should keep a permanent record for each student in a place safe from fire, theft, and tampering.* This idea rated higher than any other in the study of private junior colleges.

<sup>3</sup> Arthur M. Gignilliat, "A Critical Analysis of the Functions of the Registrar's Office in the Public Junior Colleges of the United States" (Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, 1954), 55-58, 91.

2. *The registrar should prepare and distribute to parents, students, administrators, and other persons and institutions such reports as are necessary or advisable in implementing the aims and objectives of the institution.*

3. *Changes on permanent records should be made only upon written notice from the person(s) qualified to authorize such change. Such authorization should be recorded and the student notified that the change has been made.*

4. *The registrar should make an annual report to the president and distribute it to those persons who will be able to increase their service to the institution through receiving it. The annual report is a continuing permanent record of the institution. It is first a historic record of the activities and achievements of the institution. Second, the current information properly collected, classified, and interpreted serves as a guide in formulating policies and solving administrative educational problems.*

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING RESPONSIBILITIES RELATING TO STATISTICS

Fundamentally, statistics in the registrar's office might be considered as part of the recording and reporting function because the records in his office are the basis for most of the research the registrar will do.

1. *The registrar should determine what statistics will reveal the greatest amount of information for his institution and consider their preparation a regular part of office routine.*

2. *The registrar should point out to college officials the meaning of the statistical data he has compiled and suggest needed adjustments in administration,*

*curriculum, teaching procedures, personnel services, public relations, admissions policies, and similar functions.*

3. *The registrar should arrange his statistics attractively and understandably by color graphs and special artistic devices.*

Of all the areas which the registrars considered important to them, that of statistics was the most neglected. Some reasons for the neglect were insufficient time, equipment, staff, or training.

Authorities in college administration considered statistical studies of the registrar's own college his greatest field of professional leadership. Registrars were expected to free themselves from details in order to become educational thinkers, planners, and statesmen.

#### PRINCIPLES CONCERNING THE REGISTRAR'S RESPONSIBILITIES IN GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

The registrar holds a key position in, and has vital information for, any effective private junior college guidance program.

1. *Information in the registrar's office should form the center of the guidance program. Whether registrars like it or not, they are the "switchboard of the personnel set-up, because the records system of the institution is the crossroads of all its personnel activities."*

2. *The registrar should devise a system of distributing to those who need it all the guidance information in his files. Some of this information includes: (a) the statistical data he derives from his*

\* W. C. Smyser "A New Challenge to the Registrar," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers*, XIV (April, 1939), 318.



study of records; (b) the admissions data that are in his office and more accessible to him than to anyone else; and (c) the grades, student drop slips, and numerous other evidences of student scholastic problems.

3. *The registrar's preparation should include courses in counseling procedures and student personnel work.* The Committee on Evaluation and Standards of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers has made a comprehensive study to determine what professional preparation is desirable for registrars. The committee's recommendations included "counseling procedures" and "student personnel work."

4. *The registrar should be a member of any student personnel services committee of the college.*

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE REGISTRAR'S RELATIONSHIP TO PUBLICATION FUNCTIONS

1. The registrar should prepare copy and read proof on that part of the catalog that applies to his duties. If he has the personal qualities, his is one of the most logical offices to edit the entire catalog.

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE REGISTRAR'S RELATIONSHIP TO "MISCELLANEOUS" FUNCTIONS

The registrar's office is a new office compared with some other positions, and

its duties have not been well defined, though the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers has been encouraging definition since 1910. Several duties were classified under this category in the study of private junior colleges registrars' functions. Two basic principles grew out of the study:

1. *The registrar should serve as a member of the administration policy-making committee* because his educational preparation and the information available in his office make him a valuable source of data for the committee.

2. *The registrar should not be responsible for student discipline.* Only six items in the entire study were more universally rejected by registrars than disciplinary functions.

#### IN DEFERENCE TO SOME

Kipling's statement, "There are nine and sixty ways of constructing tribal lays, and every—single—one—of—them—is—right," could be as truly said of the ways to organize and administer registrars' offices. The data in this article reflect the best thinking of the respondents in this study and a detailed analysis of the literature affecting registrars. All of the conclusions were based on the situations in which the participants operated. Different situations will frequently justify different conclusions, but variations from these should be made with caution.



# Study Problems of Junior College Students

LIONEL R. OLSEN

JUNIOR COLLEGE instructors and counselors often assist students in developing adequate study skills through class instruction and individual counseling. Freshmen frequently need help in acquiring such study skills as taking worthwhile class notes, allocating study-recreation time wisely, and reading efficiently.

A knowledge of what students consider major study problems is helpful to junior college staff members working in the study skills area. This information is useful, for example, when individual students with grade deficiency notices are counseled or when study skills are discussed in orientation and other classes.

What are some of the common study problems reported by junior college students? The writer surveyed 292 students during the 1956 fall semester to determine the problems uppermost in these students' minds. The group studied consisted principally of first semester freshmen at Hartnell College, Salinas, California. Each respondent was asked to describe fully his main study problem, and these responses were categorized and are presented in order of frequency of mention.

## I. INABILITY TO CONCENTRATE

Difficulty in concentrating completely upon the study task at hand was men-

tioned most often by the students responding (52 per cent of the total replies). The problem was expressed in various ways:

"I have difficulty in keeping my mind from wandering."

"I'm easily distracted and sidetracked."

"I cannot clear my mind of everything except the thing I'm studying."

Junior college instructors and counselors realize that there is no one panacea that improves a student's ability to concentrate upon his studies. Some individuals are assisted to upgrade this ability by being shown more adequate methods of reading and outlining the textbook. Others may be required to find places that are conducive to study; they need to consider the effects of a noisy environment upon the ability to give full attention to college studies. Occasionally, freshmen participate excessively in extra-curricular activities without realizing the relationship between physical and mental fatigue and the ability to concentrate. First-year students from small, rural high schools may have trouble giving single-minded attention to their studies because they have not adjusted to the academic demands of a college environment; time and encouragement may be all that is needed. Since a variety of reasons exists for poor concentration upon college studies, the instructor and counselor consider each problem individually.

Personal adjustment problems some-

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times prevent students from giving full attention to studies. Choosing a suitable vocational goal, for example, is a personal adjustment problem of considerable magnitude for some college students. When staff members assist young men and women to select personally satisfying career objectives, an improvement in the ability to concentrate upon college course work often results. Longer periods of counseling assistance may be required with certain cases of personal and social maladjustment; referral to more specialized counseling therapy is occasionally indicated.

## II. INABILITY TO FOLLOW A STUDY SCHEDULE

The inability to plan and regularly follow a definite study schedule was mentioned next most frequently (32 per cent of the total responses). Typical statements of this problem are:

"I'm always putting things off until the last minute."

"Something else usually comes up that is more interesting than studying."

"I do the easiest assignments first and never seem to get around to the hard ones."

Students sometimes fail to understand the benefits of following a regular study schedule. They apparently think that one week contains enough time to study all subjects adequately without recourse to a cumbersome study schedule. Such students usually do not realize the amount of time wasted when subjects are studied "according to mood." Students are encouraged to follow a study program when the loss of valuable study time is pointed out. A further incentive to regular scheduling of study time is provided students

when they understand the aspects of a well-planned study program, such as arranging time each week for a review of past assignments, planning study time as close to the lecture sessions as possible, and providing adequate recreation "breaks" at suitable times during the day.

## III. LACK OF INTEREST

Lack of interest in college studies was mentioned third most frequently by the students surveyed (eight per cent of the total replies). The following are some of the ways this study problem was expressed:

"I just don't have any drive to get these uninteresting subjects done."

"If I had more interest and motivation I'd do better."

"How can you learn anything when you're not interested?"

Numerous reasons for students' lack of interest in college course work might be given. Some have been suggested above in regard to the previously mentioned study problems. Lack of interest and the inability to concentrate, for example, seem to be related, since the student who experiences a low interest level in his classes probably has some difficulty in concentrating upon these subjects. A vague or inadequately selected career objective may produce a disinterested attitude toward college work. Personal problems occasionally assume such proportions that class work becomes unimportant to the troubled student. Extra-curricular activities might make excessive demands on a student's time and thought with a consequent lessening of class interest. The instructor and counselor often observe a relationship among the reasons for students'

inability to concentrate, inability to follow a study schedule, and lack of interest in college studies.

A student who lacks interest in his studies may be taking a program of courses that overtaxes his capabilities. Standardized tests of scholastic aptitude are helpful in determining if this is the case. Prior achievement in high school may also suggest that the student be helped to make a more realistic choice of course work. The junior college staff person should study each problem of student disinterestedness individually, attempt to understand the underlying reasons, and suggest remedial action.

#### IV. INADEQUATE GENERAL PREPARATION AND SKILLS

The least frequently mentioned study problem was a general lack of specific study skills and abilities (seven per cent of the total replies). This problem was worded in various ways:

"I do not possess a good enough vocabulary to grasp this subject."

"I cannot put down the essential things during lectures."

"I read too slowly."

"My memory isn't very good, and I forget a lot of what I've read."

Certain of the specific study skills as-

sembled under this heading can be improved during classroom presentation. Notetaking techniques, for example, may be demonstrated in orientation and other classes. Students should be given the opportunity to practice various methods, such as the outlining and the topic sentence forms of taking class notes. Some individuals may profit from a discussion of the several rates of reading, and suggestions as to the rates which may be appropriate for different study assignments are sometimes helpful. Suggested devices for the improvement of memory benefit the student who forgets names, places, and dates. Ways of increasing vocabulary may be indicated in class sessions, and library skills often lend themselves to group presentation. The junior college instructor and counselor, alert to the study problems of young men and women, can meet many of these needs through class presentation.

Inability to concentrate, lack of interest in college studies, inability to follow a regular study schedule, and inadequate general preparation and skills are study problems of the junior college students surveyed. A thorough grasp of these and similar study problems contributes to the success of instructors and counselors working in the study skills area.

# The Community College Ideal

WILLIAM J. VALADE

NUMEROUS BOOKS and articles have been written on community colleges, considering various aspects such as the curriculum, general education, and adult education. Because of the different philosophies underlying the various college programs, it becomes increasingly difficult to determine the ultimate goals of these institutions. The ideals for which they are doubtlessly striving are lost in a maze of details. Certainly community colleges are providing courses of study and many services little known in other types of educational institutions; yet even an expert in the field finds difficulty in explaining the exact nature of the community college and its ideals. While this type of education is still in its infancy and subject to some changes in its services due to its rapid development, it appears possible to isolate the concept of the community college and establish some criteria by which the "ideal" community college could be more readily identified.

The concept of the community college is relatively new. Hints of this new concept were distinguishable in the writings in the period following World War II. From the time of the appearance of the *Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education* to the present day

many interpretations of this concept of education have been presented and many implications have been drawn. It is possible to examine the findings of various educators to determine the trend of thinking and to bring into clearer focus the present concept of the community college ideal; yet an absolutely clearcut conclusion is not entirely possible because there is a lack of general understanding of just what a community college purports to be. However, a definite enough pattern seems to be available so that some tentative conclusions can be drawn and some criteria established.

Volume One of the President's *Report*, published in 1947, appears to use the term "community college" for the first time. This study explains its conception of the term in this way.

Whatever form the community college takes, its purpose is educational service to the entire community, and this purpose requires of it a variety of functions and programs. It will provide college education for the youth of the community certainly, so as to remove geographic and economic barriers to educational opportunities and discover and develop individual talents at low cost and easy access. But, in addition, the community college will serve as an active center of adult education. It will attempt to meet the total post high school needs of its community!

As a whole this *Report* encourages a community college which:

1. Serves as one means of achieving the

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ideal of an education for all American youth.

2. Is locally or regionally controlled and which fits into a statewide system of higher education.

3. Would stop at the end of the fourteenth grade and be closely articulated with the high school.

4. Would provide college education for the youth of the community so as to remove geographic and economic barriers to educational opportunity.

5. Would serve as an active center of adult education and attempt to meet the total post-high school needs in its community.

6. Would in addition emphasize programs of terminal education of vocational, avocational, and civic-cultural interests.

The philosophy of Jesse Bogue on this matter is evident through his various articles on the community college. In particular it is seen in his book, *The Community College*, where, after discussing at length some of the philosophies of the community college movement, he says:

It insists that in the interest of a better society further education must be made more democratic, more popular among the masses of the people, and more accessible to them.

In the same book he also examines the basic functions of a community college. These are the aims as he sees them:

By examination of life situations, of identifiable problems that need solution, on national, state, and local levels, we arrive at conclusions regarding the basic functions of community colleges. They are guidance and counseling for all students and for all the people of the community; general education for all students regardless of vocational objectives; technical and other vocational training, and that on a continuing basis, for students who will not

advance to upper division collegiate studies; the further democratization of higher education by surmounting barriers of geography and family financial difficulties; the popularization of higher education by breaking down family traditions and creating greater personal interest and motivation; adult education and university-parallel studies for those students who should continue formal education.

From his writings it appears that there are three qualifications which are considered basic to a community college and these are comparable to those mentioned in the *Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education*. These could be summarized as follows:

1. *Service to the people of the community:* This implies a real study of the needs of the community and a projection of the fulfillment of the needs through the facilities of the community college. Extensive use of community surveys and advisory committees are strongly suggested.

2. *Control:* This should be left to the decision of the community, says the author, and could, therefore, become locally, regionally, or state controlled. But the implication appears to be that Bogue, like the President's Commission, would favor local control.

3. *Financial Support:* The author feels that California has an ideal system which other states should investigate. This plan advocates equalization of funds for poorer communities, and local tax revenues. It also suggests that the more a local district contributes the more intense and loyal would be its affiliation with the college. The ideal is for a tuition free college experience for the youth of the community.

The revised edition of *Education For All American Youth* also discusses this ideal concept of the community colleges in these words.

In American City and ten other cities, new institutions of advanced secondary education have been developed, of which the American



City Community College is an example. These institutions provide vocational education in many fields, each institution including the chief occupations of a large region as well as of the city itself. Together they cover practically all the occupations of the state which do not require education beyond the fourteenth grade. They also offer courses comparable to those of the first two years of four-year colleges and universities. In common with secondary schools of the Farmville type, they supply continuing civic, cultural, and physical education to all their students and are responsible for local programs of education for adults and out of school youth.

In this volume the authors project their educational plans through the fourteenth grade under four general headings: Preparation for Occupations; Education for Civic Competence; Personal Development; and Elective Studies. Among the specific services rendered by the community colleges would be the following:

1. Guidance Services
2. Semi-Professional education
3. Pre-professional training
4. Vocational education
5. Technical education
6. Integrated education with high school
7. General education
8. Civic-cultural education for leisure-time activity
9. Cooperative education for leisure-time activity
10. Free public community college education with local control in a state system
11. Adult education

The concepts indicated here compare favorably with those expressed by the President's *Report* and by Bogue. Other writers on the national level have also expressed their philosophy of the community college ideal.<sup>1</sup> Since the general

<sup>1</sup> Further discussions on the community college concept may be secured in the following articles:

concepts are similar to those already expressed, it will be more advantageous to consider an example of the thinking in this area on a more local level.

The State Department of Public Instruction at Lansing, Michigan, in an unpublished paper issued in 1952 makes available some definite points of view on the community college. These principles, which also imply a concept of the ideal community college, are defined thus:

1. The community college should be an integral part of the community educational program.
2. The program of the community college should be oriented to the respective needs of individuals as well as to the needs of the service area.
3. The program should provide opportunity for continuous education for those wishing to go all the way through the fourteenth year, should take care of the educational needs of those adults whose

(a) Harold R. Bottrell, "Opportunities for Community Service," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII, 12-19.

(b) Leonard V. Koos, "A Community College Plan for Pennsylvania," *School Review*, Vol. 57, 206.

(c) Robert G. Koopman, "Why Community Colleges are Necessary," *School Executive*, Vol. 69, 47-49.

(d) Sebastian V. Martorana, "Problems in Adult Education in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XV, 115-123 and

(e) "Status of Adult Education in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII, 322-31.

(f) James A. Starrak and Raymond M. Hughes, *The New Junior College, The Next Step in Free Public Education* (Ames: The Iowa State College Press, 1948).

(g) Alfred E. Bonds, "The Next Step in American Education," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII, 125.

(h) E. Carl Shreve, "Junior College in Retrospect," *Junior College Journal*, XXVI, 425-426.



formal schooling may have been interrupted, and should provide service to those who seek to continue their education through the adult years.

4. The community college organization and service will need to be flexible in order to take into account the nature of the needs, the residences, and the work locations of the students and the availability of resources and facilities.
5. The community college as well as other school systems in the service area should stimulate, furnish leadership, and give consultation help and other assistance to groups engaged in programs of community service.
6. The program should be pointed toward eventual unification of total educational planning for the service area and for all age levels.
7. The state and local community should share in the financial support of the community college program.
8. The service areas should look forward to the time when the community college program shall be tuition free to the students.

The general concept here again compares favorably with those already presented. All these prevailing concepts may well be focused in these words:

Within the last decade many junior colleges have changed their names to community colleges. This change is not merely a new label for the old bill of goods; it signifies the development of a pragmatic educational program based on the needs of the whole community, rather than on the exclusive needs of students who planned to take their first two years of liberal arts or pre-professional training before transferring to a four-year college or university. The old junior college is still there: in fact it is the core of the pattern; but around this core of liberal arts has developed an expanded area so broad that the curriculum is now related to most of the social, civic, and industrial agencies in any given community. The cooperation between this type of educational institution and other agencies has

formed an intricate pattern of service and opportunity previously neglected because man's mind had not visualized the practical application of college education as a continuous, life-time process.

The community college differs from the traditional junior college in that it breathed life into the American ideal that education is good for everyone. It projects the principle that everyone should be able to find some type of education that is particularly good for him. Because of the broadened curricula, added technical facilities, and emphasis on continued education, this new design attracts more student body ranging in age from eighteen to fifty-five and represents a rich choice of programs.<sup>2</sup>

This review of the community college concept of education on both a national and local level has revealed some tentative conclusions. These seem to show that the concept of complete educational services to the local community is the predominating issue. The ideal appears to be for the community college to offer all the services which surveys and advisory committees indicate are needed for all post-high school youth and adults. At the same time the college is committed to integrate its program with other levels of education and to work cooperatively in and with the community to maintain and strengthen the economic, spiritual, and social life of its service area.

These conclusions suggest a basis upon which to develop criteria for identifying an "ideal" community college. The suggested criteria, therefore, are based on the extent of the services offered by a community college. It is felt that such a college is progressing to the goal of an

<sup>2</sup> A. Cummings, "Breaking New Ground," *Junior College Newsletter* (American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C.), Vol. X, No. 8, p. 4.

"ideal" community college to the degree that it fulfills these criteria:<sup>3</sup>

1. The extent to which community surveys have been made to determine the needs of the local communities for the kinds of programs which should be offered.

2. The extent to which programs for refresher and short courses have been developed.

<sup>3</sup> Special acknowledgment is due Dr. Jesse P. Bogue for suggestions regarding these criteria.

3. The extent to which advisory committees have been formed and used for community programs.

4. The extent to which adult education programs have been developed.

5. The extent of efforts to integrate the programs of the college with those of the local high school.

6. The extent to which programs of cooperative nature have been developed with business and industry, health, service, and other lines of work in the community.

# Analysis of Negro Junior College Growth

GEORGE H. WALKER, JR.

THE 1957 "Analysis of Negro Junior College Growth" includes both the data from the 1957 *Junior College Directory* and

the data secured by the investigator from additional Negro institutions recognized as junior colleges.

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## NUMBER OF COLLEGES AND ENROLLMENTS

Table I shows the number of colleges and the total enrollments, with the per-

TABLE I  
*Junior Colleges and Their Enrollments*

School Year	Number of Colleges	Enrollment	Percentage of Increase in Enrollment
1929-30	14	1,405	
1930-31	19	1,497	6.54
1931-32	21	1,618	8.08
1932-33	29	2,181	34.79
1933-34	24	2,586	18.56
1934-35	28	3,133	21.15
1935-36	25	3,126	— .22
1936-37	32	3,595	15.00
1937-38	30	3,857	7.28
1938-39	29	5,100	32.22
1939-40	32	4,439	—12.96
1940-41	28	4,333	— 2.38
1941-42	29	4,336	— .06
1942-43	26	4,241	— 2.19
1943-44	25	3,317	—21.78
1944-45	25	3,290	— .81
1945-46	23	3,753	14.07
1946-47	23	5,042	34.34
1947-48	22	6,173	22.43
1948-49	23	6,735	9.10
1949-50	26	6,447	— 4.27
1950-51	24	7,173	11.26
1951-52	29	6,091	—15.08
1952-53	26	5,911	— 2.95
1953-54	28	6,536	10.57
1954-55	23	5,866	—10.25
1955-56	19	7,046	20.1

centage of increase from 1929-30 to the present. Data used from 1929-30 to 1949-50 represent listings of the *Directory* only. After 1949-50, brief supplementary data have been added by the investigator which have increased slightly the total number of Negro colleges suitable for analysis.

The 1957 *Junior College Directory* listed 17 Negro junior colleges<sup>1</sup> in the states operating dual educational systems. To those institutions listed, the investigator has added two<sup>2</sup> Negro junior colleges,

<sup>1</sup> The Negro colleges appearing in the *Directory* are these: Alabama State College, Junior College Branch; Carver College (N.C.); Coahoma Junior College; Daniel Payne College; Edward Waters College; Friendship Junior College; Immanuel Lutheran College; Mary Holmes Junior College; Morristown N. and I. College; Norfolk Division of Virginia State College; Oakwood College; Okolona College; Prentiss Institute; S. A. Owen Junior College; Virginia Theological Seminary and College; Voorhees Junior College; and Washington Junior College.

<sup>2</sup> The junior colleges added by the investigator are Southwestern Christian College of Terrell, Texas, and Utica Institute Junior College of Utica, Mississippi.

TABLE II

*Distribution of Enrollments*

Year	Freshman	Sophomore	Others	Total
1931-32	1,001	377	240	1,618
1932-33	1,386	624	171	2,181
1933-34	1,402	739	445	2,586
1934-35	1,845	993	295	3,133
1935-36	1,827	1,186	113	3,126
1936-37	2,019	1,200	376	3,595
1937-38	2,180	1,412	265	3,857
1938-39	1,981	1,195	1,873	5,100*
1939-40	2,015	1,273	1,151	4,439
1940-41	1,998	1,478	857	4,333
1941-42	1,878	1,389	1,069	4,336
1942-43	1,286	889	2,066	4,241
1943-44	1,140	719	1,458	3,317
1944-45	1,354	824	1,112	3,290
1945-46	1,471	891	1,391	3,753
1946-47	2,043	1,096	1,903	5,042
1947-48	1,813	1,512	2,848	6,173
1948-49	1,870	1,327	3,538	6,735
1949-50	2,297	1,339	2,811	6,447
1950-51	2,499	1,477	3,197	7,173
1951-52	2,387	1,514	2,190	6,091
1952-53	2,209	1,409	2,293	5,911
1953-54	2,659	1,578	2,307	6,536
1954-55	2,047	1,148	2,671	5,866
1955-56	2,301	1,283	3,462	7,046

\* Mary Holmes Seminary gave for the school year 1938-39 a total enrollment of 51 students with no distribution given as to the classes referred to in the table. However, the 51 students have been included under "Total" in the table.

bringing the total to 19. This figure represents the smallest number of junior colleges for Negro students since the school year of 1930-31 when the total enrollment was 1,497 students. One of the junior colleges is new to the analysis. Opened on September 1, 1954, Utica Institute Junior College, Utica, Mississippi, is jointly controlled by Hinds County and the state of Mississippi. Gibbs Junior College of St. Petersburg, Florida, is very new in junior college circles and has not been in operation long enough to be included in the present analysis. Gibbs opened its doors on September 3, 1957, and is controlled by Pinellas County.

Two junior colleges formerly listed, Carver Junior College of Rockville, Maryland, and St. Phillips College of San Antonio, Texas, have become integrated institutions. The former was integrated in September, 1956, and is now a branch of Montgomery Junior College of Maryland; the latter became integrated during the school year 1955-56.

Junior colleges which were contacted by the investigator but are not included

in the present analysis are Clinton Junior College, Harberson Junior College, Kittrell Junior College, Saints Junior College, and Tyler Junior College, Negro Branch.

Table II gives the distribution of students from 1931-32 through 1955-56 in terms of academic classification. Mention should be made that the classification "others" includes both the special and adult students. It was not until the school year 1947-48 that special and adult students were reported separately.

Table III shows the number of public and private junior colleges from 1929-30 to the present. In the current analysis the public colleges are 31.6 per cent of the total, which is an increase of 1.2 per cent from those of last year.

A breakdown of junior colleges in terms of states gives the following distribution: Mississippi ranks first with five junior colleges; Alabama ranks second with three junior colleges; Florida, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia rank third with two junior colleges each; and Texas ranks fourth with

TABLE III  
*Growth in Number of Junior Colleges 1930-1956*

Year	Total	Public	Private	Percentage Public
1929-30	14	4	10	28.6
1932-33	21	5	16	23.8
1935-36	25	4	21	16.0
1938-39	29	6	23	20.7
1941-42	29	4	25	13.8
1944-45	25	6	19	24.0
1947-48	22	6	16	27.3
1950-51	24	7	17	29.2
1953-54	28	12	16	42.8
1954-55	23	7	16	30.4
1955-56	19	6	13	31.6



one junior college. The enrollment figures for 1957 are those covering the entire 1955-56 academic year including summer school. Virginia, again this year, is the state with the largest total enrollment—3,664 students. The Norfolk Division of Virginia State College, Norfolk, Virginia, again has the largest total enrollment for a single institution with 3,482 students, an increase of 1,258 students over the enrollment given last year for the Division.

TABLE IV

*Size of Junior Colleges As Viewed Through Breakdown of Enrollment Figures*

Enrollment	Total	Number of Colleges	
		Public	Private
1- 49	1	0	1
50- 99	0	0	0
100- 199	10	2	8
200- 299	4	1	3
300- 399	2	1	1
400- 499	1	1	0
500- 599	0	0	0
600- 699	0	0	0
700- 799	0	0	0
800- 899	0	0	0
900- 999	0	0	0
1000-1999	0	0	0
2000-2999	0	0	0
3000-3999	1	1	0
Total	19	6	13

Table IV shows the relative size of the Negro junior college as seen through a breakdown of enrollment figures. Eleven, or 57.89 per cent, of the junior colleges have fewer than 200 students. Of this number two, or 10.52 per cent, are public junior colleges. Seven, or 36.84 per cent, (three public and four private) of the institutions have enrollments which range from 221 to 458 students.

Adult students increased 9.7 per cent, while all other classes of students decreased in enrollment as shown by Table V.

TABLE V

*Comparison of Junior College Enrollment Figures in Classes for School Year 1955-56 and 1954-55*

Class	Number	Percentage	
		1955-56	1954-55
Freshman	2,301	32.7	35.0
Sophomore	1,283	18.2	19.6
Special	1,761	25.0	31.0
Adult	1,701	24.1	14.4
Total	7,046	100.0	100.0

Freshman enrollment decreased by 2.3 per cent, sophomore enrollment, by 1.4 per cent; and special enrollment, by 6.0 per cent.

TABLE VI

*Adult Enrollment in Junior Colleges Over An Eight-Year Period From 1948-49 to 1955-56*

Year	Total	Adult	Percentage of Adult
1955-56	7,046	1,701	24.1
1954-55	5,866	847	14.4
1953-54	6,536	1,919	29.2
1952-53	5,911	1,388	23.4
1951-52	6,091	1,247	20.4
1950-51	7,173	1,923	27.0
1949-50	6,447	863	13.4
1948-49	6,347	513	8.1

Table VI gives adult enrollment for a period of eight years. It is on the increase again after suffering a decline in 1954-55. This increase came in spite of the fact that Negro junior colleges seem to be decreasing numerically.

Table VII shows the enrollment of special students over a period of eight

TABLE VII

*Special Student Enrollment in Junior Colleges  
Over An Eight-Year Period From 1949-1956*

Enrollment	Percentage of Junior College Enrollment	Year
2,804	44.2	1948-49
1,949	30.2	1949-50
1,265	17.6	1950-51
943	15.4	1951-52
905	15.3	1952-53
388	6.0	1953-54
1,424	31.0	1954-55
1,761	25.0	1955-56

years. Special enrollment suffered the largest decrease of the classes with decreased enrollments.

The 19 Negro institutions have 177 full-time and 143 part-time instructors, or

a total of 320 instructors for 1955-56 as compared with 432 instructors the previous year. The 143 part-time instructors are equivalent to 86 full-time instructors, making a total of 263 full-time instructors, or 13.8 full-time instructors per institution.

#### ACCREDITATION AND ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP

Of the 19 institutions, six, or 31.57 per cent, are members (five active and one provisional) of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Six, or 31.57 per cent, of the institutions are accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

## The Change in English Teaching

DAVID A. MUNRO

CRITICISM OF traditional methods of teaching English has always been an inside job. Led by leading members of the National Council of Teachers of English, it culminated in the 1940 publication of *American English Grammar* by Charles C. Fries as Council Monograph No. 10.

Grammarians were delighted with this event. An approach to grammar at once systematic yet non-traditional, it became for these leaders the new bible, the new charter of freedom.

It turned out, however, that the magic was not automatically effective. Dr. Fries had demonstrated in a monumental study that the "good-bad" distinctions made by the Emily Posts of grammar yielded a warped and even untrue picture of the language. But at the operations level the new drive creaked to a halt. The foot-soldier in the English teaching army, the ordinary teacher standing before his uneager class, vastly preferred things authoritative to things tentative. He wanted to tell students what they had to do to get by. He also fancied himself a missionary from the civilized, literate world saving some souls from a sea of juvenile barbarism. He "prescribed" for his charges, in manners as well as in grammar, and he preferred the "prescriptive" grammars. The scientific attitude, he felt, had no

place in the English classroom. And Fries was scientific. He had written a "descriptive" grammar. Even for those instructors able to teach descriptive grammar, the Fries book would not serve, at least not at the freshman composition level.

Undoubtedly Dr. Fries hoped that he had made up this deficiency with *The Structure of English* which appeared in 1952. Here he offered a new classification of American English parts of speech based on word order and other "formal" signals. Briefly, it divides all English into four parts of speech plus 16 kinds of "function words."

There were sporadic attempts to use this book at the freshman level, but it was quickly evident, even to convinced "structuralists" or descriptive grammarians, that it was too complicated. It was simply not useful in the freshman composition class. But the structuralists began using it to redesign their own courses, even though they could not assign it as a text to their students. Four years later—a banner year—three books appeared that were indeed designed as freshman textbooks. Of the authors, all were structuralists, all were indebted to Dr. Fries, and all were professional teachers of freshman composition.

These books are *American English in Its Cultural Setting* by Donald J. Lloyd and Harry R. Warfel (Knopf); *Structural Essentials of English* by Harold

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Whitehall (Harcourt, Brace); and *Paterns of English* by Paul Roberts (Harcourt, Brace).

It is not the purpose here to discuss the virtues or failings of these three textbooks, nor yet the virtues of scientific structural grammar—as conceived by Dr. Fries—in pedagogy, but rather to get at the heart of the matter: an assessment of the English teaching revolution of these times. Suffice it to say of the three 1956 books that they suffered from the scientific blindspot of Dr. Fries and many a fellow descriptivist. Effectiveness of written material is nowhere a controlling desideratum. An instructor using Lloyd-Warfel, or any of the others, will be thrown back upon the presence or absence of “errors” in themes for grading purposes, or else upon other, more subjective, “literary” factors. The three new books do, however, mark the gathering momentum of the movement. They add to it, too. After their emergence, there was no longer any reasonable doubt that the revolution was in process, that English teaching was undergoing a total change.

The change, of course, remains a revolution at the top. For instance, the session on nomenclature in the new grammar, held recently at the annual Modern Language Association Convention, attracted three of the “banner year” authors, as well as James Sledd of the University of California, Harold Allen of Minnesota, Sumner Ives of Tulane and some 40 other highly vocal participants. Their question did not concern when the impending change would occur but what to call the new parts of speech? Observers polling the conferees estimated that some half dozen structural grammar textbooks are now in preparation. Besides, many of

these teachers—perhaps all—were committing new materials to mimeograph.

In these circumstances of brilliant disagreement, so great that no man can be sure whether or not to call a noun a noun, finding the common lines of rebel thinking presents serious problems. One must begin with the common commitment of them all: they are linguistic scientists. More narrowly, they are structuralists, with an immediate debt to Dr. Fries' works, as indicated, and a more distant debt to Leonard Bloomfield's famous *Language* (1933), often regarded as the fountainhead of American structural linguistics.

These guides permit a narrowing down of the field. They permit a controlling first statement:

I. Language is the spoken phenomenon. What is written is secondary, derivative, and never so important.

Historically this assumption led to the isolation of “phonemes” and to the recognition of the other elements that make up structural linguistics. In modern times it has led Dr. Fries to say—to the delight of lay reporters—that “ain't is perfectly good English.” But of course he had no option. If the spoken language is the criterion, and usage is its own seal of acceptance, then the very circulation of “ain't” is its certification. Thus the spoken language group has ushered in a new “leave your language alone” school, to the dismay of the more prissy grammarians.

However, the full effect of the spoken language people is not limited to the blow it deals poor Emily Post. After all, this is a concept put forth for teachers of writing. They find, for instance, that Professor Lloyd teaches his classes to write by mak-

ing them repeat sentence patterns orally. They find that punctuation placement has become a function of the speech being taught, new in the sense that it is not the old forensics, long a part of the curriculum, but in the sense that it is the spoken version it is now said was implied all along in whatever was written.

Linguistic science is also responsible for the second controlling statement:

II. The most rewarding scientific assumption about language is that its sounds are studied separate from meaning. It has physical attributes: sounds, stresses, pitches, junctures and patterns of order or sequence. These bear internal relationships to each other and are the main data of linguistic science.

From this assumption modern language teachers are led to their concern with what they call "signals." They are reluctant to impute any effect to a stretch of discourse if they cannot point to the presence of a language element associated with this effect. It is the basis upon which the retreat from intuition in rhetorical evaluation has begun.

But the physical elements of language are shaped by the peculiar psychological job they have to perform, and this peculiarity may be summarized in a third statement:

III. The physical sounds of language are not subject to description in the same way that other physical facts may be described. There is an "-emic" peculiarity in language sounds. Basic meaningful elements—vowels and consonants, for instance—are not "phones" but "phonemes" in the proper study of language. The difference is that the phone of phonetics has a precise physical description, whereas the phoneme of modern phonemics is a precise entity only as a language element, only "emically." It has variation and range. It has a central tendency and is warped or slanted in the immediate environment of

given other phonemes. The phone is international and appears in thousands, but the phoneme is confined to a language community and is restricted in number: there are some 44 in English.

Modern grammarians have accepted this assumption from linguistic science, and the phoneme has made its appearance in both Whitehall and Lloyd-Warfel. But the full impact of the -emic notion on the teaching of writing is undoubtedly yet to be felt. A psychologist might observe that the phoneme, or any other "-eme," is a "gestalt" or psychological organization, but the possible contributions of gestalt psychology to the teaching of rhetoric have not yet been recognized.

More immediate and more obvious is the final statement:

#### IV. *Language is in process of change.*

No more need be said of this observation than that the battle for its acceptance has been won. There are now few English teachers who do not recognize that the language fashions of one age are not the fashions of another, that what has become a cliché is only what is passing out, that all elements are in a wheeling shift of fashion, often covering many centuries, but sometimes realized in a year.

These guiding principles have special relevance for the junior college, especially because the junior college is the chief current instrument, wherever its growth has been fostered, of the broadening college population base. The predominately male junior college population in California is typically split between terminals and technicals. The former are future construction foremen, laboratory assistants, tool-makers, master mechanics; the latter are future engineers, with a sprinkling of future doctors. Both, however, are of the

same mind; they want to be shown. They are happy intellectually in physics and chemistry laboratories where they can discover the facts for themselves. In contrast, they resent being handed rules without proof in the English class, and this resentment is not lessened by the fact that they are a captive audience, herded in by the requirement of English for non-English majors. There is, however, an even more pressing reason for new methods becom-

ing identified with junior college teaching. It is that new colleges are more likely to take it up than old; new colleges do not have traditions that get in the way, or staffs that can neither understand nor use the new ways. The new colleges of the immediate future—built between now and the frantic sixties—will inevitably be junior, or community, colleges. No other help of the needed magnitude can reasonably be expected.

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### **This I Tried and Found Helpful**

#### **Using Advertisements in Teaching a Foreign Language**

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A helpful device in teaching the practical aspects of a foreign language is the use of newspaper and magazine advertisements. These may concern any of the many articles in daily use from bedroom sets to kitchen utensils.

The advertisements often contain pictures of articles whose names do not appear in the most up-to-date dictionaries, whereupon the members of the class are challenged to find the correct names for

such articles. An example of this is "mitered sheets." Some of the dictionary work is done in class with the students bringing dictionaries and advertisements.

After a number of related articles have been assigned their names in the foreign language, they serve as the basis for informal conversation. Thus, the theory and vocabulary the student is mastering from the course texts are applied in a practical manner.



# The Junior College and Vocational Opportunities in Geology

CHARLES A. BRYAN

IN PRESENTING educational and vocational opportunities to prospective college matriculants, junior college and secondary school counselors are likely to give only scant attention to some of the lesser known but worthwhile vocations. In Florida junior colleges and high schools, for example, vocational conferences are scheduled for male juniors and seniors at which lectures and discussions on standard vocations are presented, often by experts in their respective fields. The list of vocations presented apparently varies little from year to year. Medicine, dentistry, law, pharmacy, clerical work, accounting, undertaking, chiropractic, osteopathy, engineering, business administration, transportation, the ministry, teaching, aviation, chemistry, mechanical and electrical crafts, etc. are the usual topics for urban schools.

In rural schools and colleges, agriculture, forestry, veterinary medicine, and horticulture, etc. are invariably on the vocational list, while mining and metallurgy are seldom stressed except in mining regions. The armed services have assemblies in the interest of their respective branches; namely, the Army, Air Force,

Navy, Marines, Coast Guard, and the Merchant Marines.

One of the most popular courses offered in many colleges often is found to be geology, and the demand for this course could be even greater if junior college and high school students had some knowledge of the current cultural and vocational values of this earth science. Students who major in college geology will find many interesting fields of endeavor open to them, particularly if they like an exploratory, vigorous outdoor life, but vocational opportunities in this field are not always comprehended even by students who take the first-year course in college, either in physical or historical geology.

The writer prepared a geology interest and aptitude questionnaire for high school seniors and junior college freshmen which sought to ascertain whether or not:

1. Academic, technical high school and junior college seniors have some knowledge of a vocation in geology.
2. High school students have had any contact with geology through their science courses.
3. High school students have any hobby or avocational aims or interests related to geology.

Four hundred replies to the questionnaire were received and generally indicated: (a) lack of information among high school seniors and junior college

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freshmen regarding vocational opportunities in geology, except, of course, in mining regions; (b) some latent interest in the subject through knowledge gleaned from related junior college or secondary school sciences in chemistry, biology, physiography, and physical science survey; (c) occasional hobby interest; (d) field trips.

The vocational possibilities in geology present an impressive array of varying fields of endeavor which are related directly or indirectly to the subject as outcomes following graduation. Among the most popular and well-known possibilities are: (1) geologist in state or federal departments of geology; (2) member of geological survey party in discovering new mineral resources; (3) geologist in the mining industry—iron, uranium, nickel, copper, silver, gold, aluminum, coal, etc.; (4) petrographer in metallurgical industries such as steel, copper, and aluminum; (5) geologist in the petroleum industry; (6) prospector for precious metals and mineral resources; (7) paleontologist; (8) crystallographer; (9) worker in geological testing laboratories; (10) geological cartographer; (11) mineralogist; and (12) research geologist.

In addition, opportunities for an interesting and rewarding career exist in teaching the various branches of geology, such as economic, historical, physical, mining, stratigraphy, mineralogy, and crystallography in colleges and universities. Geologists have an excellent background for teaching junior college and high school sciences, physics, chemistry, biology, and general or survey of physical sciences. There are good prospects for fellowships and graduate work in geology also open to graduates in the field.

As a general rule, students of agronomy and soil conservation should have some knowledge of geology. Atomic energy and nuclear physicists in their search for new uranium ore deposits have renewed interest also in the chemical industry with the study of original ores and rock forming minerals. National defense has its need for geologists as the U.S. Army and Navy employed geologists on a large scale in connection with amphibious operations to detect submerged coral reefs and atolls during World War II.

Junior college vocational counselors should add geology to their list of worthwhile vocations for presentation to prospective college matriculants. Science teachers generally should plan to include geology units in their courses of study, stressing particularly the vocational possibilities in the field. Junior college students can be encouraged to make rock, fossil, and mineral collections as a hobby, thus combining an interesting and instructive hobby with some preliminary vocational training aims.

One of the most interesting units in the junior college course in survey of science is the geology and paleontology units under the title of earth science. Here again science teachers could point out to interested or apt pupils the unexcelled opportunities if they continue their training in geology or mining engineering.

To create and motivate further interest in vocational geology, junior college geography, physics, and chemistry teachers can include in their courses some facts and units relating to the field. They can stress rocks, crystals, petroleum, minerals, and oil and thus arouse latent interests which may culminate in another geology student's entering a fine profession.

## Current Publications Received of Interest to Junior College Readers

Babcock, Robert S. *State & Local Government & Politics*. New York: Random House, 1957. Pp. xvii + 430. \$5.50.

This text attempts to concentrate on the problems of state and local government and tries to see them from the point of view of the practicing politician or administrator. It emphasizes day-to-day questions of government.

Bodde, Derk. *China's Cultural Tradition*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1957. Pp. vi + 90. \$1.25.

The greatest problem in writing this book was that of space: to compress more than 3,000 years of Chinese cultural tradition into a little under 100 pages, and at the same time give as balanced a presentation as possible to diverse topics and expressions of opinion.

Bradley, Joseph F. and Ralph H. Wherry. *Personal and Family Finance*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. xvi + 565. \$6.75.

Written by authors of successful texts on finance and insurance, this book is unusually clear, complete, and up-to-date. The life cycle of family finance is stressed in all such matters as budgeting, home ownership, and savings; and, in line with today's needs, special attention is given to the financing of retirement and old age and to the financial protection of the family's future.

Dowd, David L. *Napoleon*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. 60. \$7.50.

This little volume is written to help the beginning student in the history of civilization to answer the question, "Was Napoleon the heir of the French Revolution?" The topic raises some basic problems concerning both revolutions and dictatorships, not only for the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth, but for earlier and later periods as well.

Hazel, J. F. *A Basic Laboratory Course in College Chemistry*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. viii + 233. \$3.95.

This manual is self-contained, but if it is desired to have lectures precede laboratory work, this can be done adequately by following the lecture outline at the end of the contents. Concerning a textbook to accompany this manual, any good modern textbook will provide profitable reading. This statement is based on the hope that concepts not found in the textbook but used in the manual are discussed adequately in the latter.

Koos, Earl Lomon. *Marriage*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1957. Pp. vii + 344. \$4.00.

This revised edition is written primarily for the student who makes his first—and possibly only—excursion into that portion of the academic world which devotes itself to matters concerning marriage and the family.

Langdon, Grace and Irving W. Stout. *Helping Parents Understand Their Child's School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1957. Pp. xviii + 508.

Here is a unique handbook that helps teachers anticipate the questions as well as give clear, practical answers to what parents say they want to know about their children's schools. Based on personal interviews with 865 families representing all strata of society and with children in kindergarten through grade 12, it answers the questions most frequently voiced by these parents.

La Salle, Dorothy. *Guidance of Children Through Physical Education* (2nd ed.). New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. x + 375. \$4.00.

This book provides practical ideas and materials of instruction to help teachers relate a program of physical education to life situations and thus better develop in children the ability to adjust to life demands. Integrating theory and practice, the book is a basic text for college courses in teaching methods and curriculum materials for the elementary school physical education program.

Lively, Charles E. and Jack J. Preiss. *Conservation Education in American Colleges*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. ix + 267. \$5.00.

This volume reports the findings of a national survey of the teaching of conservation in the colleges and universities of the United States. All data were collected during the calendar years 1954 and 1955. No comprehensive survey of this sort has previously been undertaken, and the findings which it brings to view are of importance to all who are interested in the development of a con-

structive national attitude toward the conservation of this country's natural resources.

Loewenberg, Bert James. *Darwinism*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. iv + 60. \$.75.

This pamphlet is one of a series entitled, Source Problems in World Civilization, published by Rinehart and Co.

Morgan, Clifford T. and James Deese. *How to Study*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. v + 130. \$1.50.

This book is a practical guide in methods of studying. It presents specific instructions for planning and using study time, getting the most out of a textbook, outlining and taking notes, and preparing for and taking examinations. It also gives directions for dealing with special problems such as studying foreign languages, writing themes and reports, and solving mathematical problems.

Mort, Paul R. and Donald H. Ross. *Principles of School Administration* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957. Pp. xv + 451. \$6.00.

Generally regarded as a classic in the professional literature of education, this work is dominated by a common-sense approach based on integration of knowledges and skills that will enable the administrator to face new problems confidently. Although the book is fundamentally organized in terms of criteria for judgment, the authors very deliberately include wide reference to the problems and subject matter of school administration.

Parnell, E. D. *Profitable Poultry Production*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. ix + 393. \$4.95.

This book has been written primarily for agricultural students in vocational high schools and departments, technical institutes, and junior colleges. It is hoped that other farm youth and poultry farmers will find it useful. The author has chosen the materials of instruction for those who desire a working skill and knowledge of poultry production. The teaching approach is based on the outcomes of scientific research, although the sources of the information are not always given.

Raymond, Ellsworth. *Soviet Economic Progress*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1957. Pp. iv + 56. \$.75.

The readings in this pamphlet depict both the economic successes and the economic failures of the USSR. Many of the quotations are official Soviet statements.

Spears, Harold. *Curriculum Planning Through In-Service Programs*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957. Pp. xiii + 350.

This book grew out of a desire to go into various school systems to see what they are doing in the way of in-service education of teachers and staff. Its method is to describe the proceedings and allow the programs to speak for themselves rather than to discuss them from the writer's viewpoint, which would be influenced by his own background and possible prejudices.

Stone, Archie A. and Harold E. Gulvin. *Machines for Power Farming*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. vi + 616. \$5.95.

This book has been written to help students in the study of modern farm machinery, especially to help in selecting,

using, and maintaining typical machines.

Stone, L. Joseph and Joseph Church. *Childhood and Adolescence*. New York: Rondon House., 1957. Pp. xvii + 456. \$6.50.

A comprehensive, highly readable account of human psychological development from birth to adulthood, this book focuses on the child as a person dealing with a real world—his capacities, needs, passions, and concerns, and the environmental conditions that help to shape his individuality. The student, professional worker, and parent will find in these pages a skillful integration of facts drawn from all the sciences of behavior and development.

Stormont, John W. *The Economics of Secession and Coercion 1861*. Victoria, Texas: The Victoria Advocate Publishing Co., 1957. Pp. 148.

To find out what relation there was between the profitability of the South to the North and the preservation of the Union involves two problems. The first is to find out how profitable the South was to the North and the second is to find out how much influence this factor had on the men who made the policy of the Republican administration in 1861. This study deals with the first of these problems, and it seeks to give a quantitative answer to certain questions concerning the economic worth of the South to the rest of the nation in 1860.

Vanderford, H. B. *Managing Southern Soils*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. xi + 378. \$4.75.

This book has been prepared primarily for agricultural students, farmers and farm leaders who are interested in the



management of southern farm soils. Emphasis has been placed on the what, how, and why of actual farm operations, with limited attention given to technical terms, processes, and explanations.

Woolf, Maurice D. and Jeanne A. Woolf. *Remedial Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957. Pp. viii + 424. \$5.75.

Concerned primarily with the multiple

causes of reading disability, this text covers various techniques used in the diagnosis, counseling, instruction, and evaluation in the remedial reading program. The authors' aim is to present the causes, psychological development, and methods of diagnosing, teaching, and treating reading disability, as well as insights into how anyone might learn to read and how any pupil might be taught.

### **This I Tried and Found Helpful**

#### **Remedial English Classes**

Alfred N. Carter, New Mexico Military Institute, Roswell, New Mexico

In helping freshman English students whose backgrounds are inadequate for college work, the staff of the New Mexico Military Institute has found that remedial classes supplemented by individual consultations are of considerable value. Because the Institute is a state-owned school, it must accept for admission all applicants who have a high school diploma. There are always some who need study and encouragement beyond or below the level of regular classes: poor spellers, poor writers, students weak in vocabulary.

These students are dealt with in extra classes which are assigned within the framework of the academic day—usually two extra classes a week for a semester. Additional drills and exercises supplement regular assignments. There is no attempt in these special classes to go beyond the basic mechanics of expression; the only form of discourse stressed is the expository.

Students bring their regular themes and exercises for analysis and discussion, and details are explained on a level com-

mensurate with student development. The regular workbooks and handbooks are supplemented by exercises worked out by the teaching staff. Time is saved in the regular classes by the avoidance of unnecessary explanation—the regular review of grammar, sentence and paragraph structure, and short-theme writing is accomplished in one semester so that the student can devote his second semester to more advanced expression, to the reading and analysis of literary works, and to principles of bibliography and elementary research.

Students who fail to develop competent expression during the first semester must repeat the course—they are not permitted to take the second semester's work.

Undoubtedly many students who would be certain failures without special help are saved by this method of coaching. It has been a fact at the Institute for a long time that many students who have begun miserably have shown eventually achievements in expression which justify the time and effort expended.



## Analysis of Junior College Growth

JESSE P. BOGUE

THE ANALYSIS of junior college growth is designed to give the reader a quick and general view of what has taken place in this educational movement from its inception to the present time. The year 1900 has been fixed arbitrarily as the starting point. The number of colleges and enrollments in 1900 are estimates only. It is well known that before the year 1900 there was a considerable number of two-year institutions of higher learning. This was especially true of the two-year normal schools.

There were various expressions of thinking during the latter part of the 19th century with respect to the need for the reorganization of the American school system. In this thinking it can be observed that attention was being given to an intermediate type of institution. It was felt that a considerable amount of education offered in senior institutions in the freshman and sophomore years could be done better in two-year colleges. True university work should begin, so it was stated, at the junior year in a university atmosphere and by university methods. Those who may be interested in this phase of junior college analysis may consult the records of such institutions as the University of Minnesota, the University of Michigan, University of Chicago, Leland Stanford University, and several others.

The junior college, organized in its own right as a separate and distinct institution

of higher education, began to emerge in about the year 1900, hence the reason for fixing this date as the beginning point for this analysis. It is not claimed now that all two-year colleges have achieved clearly identifiable recognition as institutions in their own right. This is, however, the definite trend at the present time. Almost without exception wherever the two-year institutions are growing with greatest rapidity they have, as the New York State Board of Regents has stated, "a meaning and competence in their own right."

Junior college growth in number of institutions and in expansion of enrollments has been all of a piece with similar developments in all education. The rapid growth of high schools and all institutions of higher education since the year 1900 is too well known to require repetition. All colleges and universities were flooded with students following World War II because of the G. I. Bill of Rights and because vast numbers of young men and women had been compelled to delay their education by reason of military service.

Moreover, an examination of the needs of society, of our economic development, and of national security indicates that one of our basic needs is for far greater numbers of highly educated and trained people. Professionally educated personnel also requires great numbers of well-qualified assistants in business, science, manufacturing, communications and in almost

every phase of our social structure. The democratic ideal of the American way of life sets a goal of equality of educational opportunity for all persons. Then, too, the higher levels of professional and semi-professional occupations can be fully sustained in a democratic government only as the general level of education is raised and maintained for all citizens. The understanding, appreciation, and willingness of the rank and file of citizens to support higher education are results of the general educational levels they have gained.

We have cited a few of these well-known facts to indicate that the junior college movement in this century is not an isolated phenomenon. It is part and parcel of the total upgrading of the people in education and training. In a recent publication issued by the National Association of Manufacturers it is stated that "if you had nothing to do all day but sit around and count the number of inventions, discoveries and startling new advances that science and technology have made in your lifetime, you would be an old man before reaching *E* for electronics!" It is into this kind of society that we have come and the key to successful living in it is more and better education at all levels. Advancements made in the first half of this century, and the indications of further revolutionary developments in every phase of civilized society, are tokens and prophecies of far greater developments in the second half. The past record of advancement in junior and community colleges should be an indication of the direction these institutions will take in the future.

Table IV will give the reader a picture of the growth in the number of colleges and in enrollments from 1900 to the year 1956-57. The number of students is by

head count of every person who attended a two-year college for one or more courses during the sessions held from June 1, 1956, until May 31, 1957. The number includes full-time, part-time matriculated students classified for credit, and special and adults who were enrolled for short courses or for informal education. It will be observed that there have been fluctuations in enrollments during the years and that these have paralleled war years and other national crises. For example, while the year 1943-44 shows a sharp decline in enrollments, the year 1946-47 shows that there was a 54.5 per cent increase over the previous year. These changes were almost wholly caused by the war. There were large and steady expansions during the latter years of the 1930's largely because of the depression on the finances of the nation. Since 1953-54, the growth has been stabilized at about 11 per cent from year to year. If the reader wishes to indulge in predictions for the future growth of junior colleges, he may base it on the results which could come about by the continued growth of from 10 to 12 per cent each year until 1965 to 1970.

Plans being made now in many of the states for junior colleges, the increasing holding power of high schools, the ever-increasing percentage of high school graduates seeking to enter college, the advancing scientific and technological aspects of society which are requiring more and better educated people—all point to the prediction that by 1965 to 1970 there will be between 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 students enrolled in junior and community colleges in the United States. About one-half of these will be freshmen and sophomores.

Table V is presented to show the growth of the number of institutions, those under

TABLE IV  
*Number of Colleges and Enrollments  
 1900-1957*

School Year	Number of Colleges	Enrollment	Percentage Increase in Enrollment
1900-1901	8	100	.....
1915-1916	74	2,363	.....
1921-1922	207	16,031	.....
1925-1926	325	35,630	.....
1926-1927	408	50,529	.....
1927-1928	405	54,438	7.7
1928-1929	429	67,627	24.2
1929-1930	436	74,088	9.6
1930-1931	469	97,631	31.8
1931-1932	493	96,555	— 1.1
1932-1933	514	103,530	7.2
1933-1934	521	107,807	4.1
1934-1935	518	122,311	13.5
1935-1936	528	129,106	5.6
1936-1937	553	136,623	5.8
1937-1938	556	155,588	13.9
1938-1939	575	196,710	26.4
1939-1940	610	236,162	20.1
1940-1941	627	267,406	13.2
1941-1942	624	314,349	17.6
1942-1943	586	325,151	3.4
1943-1944	584	249,788	—23.2
1944-1945	591	251,290	0.6
1945-1946	648	294,475	17.2
1946-1947	663	455,048	54.5
1947-1948	651	500,536	10.1
1948-1949	648	465,815	— 6.9
1949-1950	634	562,786	17.2
1950-1951	597	579,475	2.8
1951-1952	593	572,193	— 1.3
1952-1953	594	560,732	— 2.0
1953-1954	598	622,864	11.1
1954-1955	596	696,321	11.8
1955-1956	635	765,551	10.0
1956-1957	652	869,720	11.36

the control of public authority and those that are independent or church-related, and the percentage of change between the two main types. From 1900 until 1947-48, public junior colleges were in the minority. Since then public institutions

have been established more rapidly than others so that by 1956-57 they represented 57.8 per cent of all two-year colleges. The net gain in public junior colleges, as reported in this *Directory*, is 14 over the previous year and three for the inde-

pendent colleges. One reason for the larger gain by the public colleges is the inclusion of the two-year extension centers of Indiana University. The small net gain of independent colleges is partly due to the discontinuance of a few and the fact that some others became four-year institutions. The extension centers of Indiana University have been included for the same reasons as those for Pennsylvania State University, the University of Wisconsin, and Purdue University in Indiana. Here again, the *Junior College Directory* includes a comprehensive report on all institutions accredited by state departments of education or regional accrediting associations as definitely organized two-year colleges, extension centers of universities, technical institutes, or teachers colleges.

We believe that diversity of institutions in the junior and community college movement, while somewhat confusing to some, is one source of its strength. There are diversities of student interest and

talent. There are wide diversities of employment outlets for graduates of two-year institutions and for those who aspire to continue their education and training beyond two years in post-high school. Considered from this point of view, the different types of institutions in the total movement will help the reader to clarify his understanding of the movement as a whole. Among senior institutions there are diversities—liberal arts colleges, public and private universities, institutes of technology, specialized and professional schools of many kinds.

Table VI is published to show comparative growth and enrollments for public and private junior colleges. The year 1921-22 witnessed the public colleges passing the independent in enrollments. Since that time, the gap between these types has widened. It is significant, however, that since 1951-52 the rate of increase in enrollments has held quite steady. This is especially significant in view of the fact that the net gain in the

TABLE V  
*Growth in Number of Junior Colleges  
1900-1957*

Year	Total	Public	Private	Percentage Public
1900-01	8	0	8	0
1915-16	74	19	55	26
1921-22	207	70	137	34
1925-26	325	136	189	42
1929-30	436	178	258	41
1933-34	521	219	302	42
1938-39	575	258	317	45
1947-48	651	328	323	50
1952-53	594	327	267	55
1953-54	598	338	260	57
1954-55	596	336	260	56
1955-56	635	363	272	57
1956-57	652	377	275	57.8

TABLE VI  
*Growth in Junior College Enrollment  
 1900-1957*

Year	Total	Public	Private	Percentage Public
1900-01	100	0	100	0
1915-16	2,363	592	1,771	25
1921-22	16,031	8,349	7,682	52
1925-26	35,630	20,145	15,485	57
1929-30	74,088	45,021	29,067	61
1933-34	107,807	74,853	32,954	69
1938-39	196,710	140,545	56,165	71
1947-48	500,536	378,844	121,692	76
1951-52	572,193	495,766	76,427	87
1952-53	560,732	489,563	71,169	87
1953-54	622,864	553,008	69,856	89
1954-55	696,321	618,000	78,321	89
1955-56	765,551	683,129	82,422	89
1956-57	869,720	776,493	93,227	89.2

establishment of public colleges has been greater than of the independent. In 1956-57, the net gain in public colleges compared to that in independent colleges was only two-tenths of one per cent. Suggestions have been made that the *Directory* might very well include a column to indicate the equated full-time enrollments of all junior colleges. If this were done, it is likely that the spread between public and private enrollments would be lessened. Almost all private colleges are residential and for this reason the percentage of full-time students is probably greater than in those under public control. In any event, the difference between enrollments in the two types of junior colleges compares almost exactly with the differences between enrollments in public and private secondary schools, rather than between enrollments in public and private senior colleges and universities.

In Table VII, it may be observed that students indicated as "others" include spe-

cials and adults. We have continued this table because it was used in this manner until 1947-48 to identify all students who were not classified as freshmen and sophomores. Table VIII was added in the 1947-48 reports for the further breakdown between specials and adults. For 1956-57, these students outnumbered those who were classified as freshmen and sophomores. The reader may wish to trace the increasing numbers and percentages of adults and special students from the year 1936-37 to 1956-57 to see what has happened during the past 20 years. The functions of upgrading, retraining employed persons in communities, and of extending cultural and recreational courses to adults have been largely responsible for this increase. The performance of these functions shows that many two-year colleges are becoming more sensitive to community needs outside regular collegiate offerings for those working for degrees.

In Table VIII, it may be seen that the

TABLE VII  
*Distribution of Enrollments*  
 1936-37 to 1956-57

Year	Freshman	Sophomore	Others	Total
1936-37	73,880	41,993	20,750	136,623
1937-38	80,398	41,986	33,204	155,588
1938-39	96,687	47,174	52,849	196,710
1939-40	105,663	57,128	73,371	236,162
1940-41	104,819	60,218	102,369	267,406
1941-42	100,280	55,644	158,425	314,349
1942-43	90,810	40,981	193,360	325,151
1943-44	62,307	25,690	161,791	249,788
1944-45	117,836	36,537	140,102	251,290
1945-46	116,282	35,948	142,245	294,475
1946-47	210,805	67,406	176,837	455,048
1947-48	196,510	119,080	184,946	500,536
1948-49	172,537	100,323	192,955	465,815
1949-50	183,117	102,871	276,798	562,786
1950-51	164,523	93,622	321,330	579,475
1951-52	139,850	70,976	361,367	572,193
1952-53	156,192	70,065	334,475	560,732
1953-54	172,566	83,138	367,160	622,864
1954-55	190,634	85,802	419,885	696,321
1955-56	255,301	124,934	385,361	765,551
1956-57	291,981	136,530	441,209	869,720

TABLE VIII  
*Number of Special and Adult Students*  
 1947-48 to 1956-57

Year	Number of Special Students	Percentage Increase	Number of Adult Students	Percentage Increase
1947-48	54,616	.....	130,330	.....
1948-49	50,939	— 6.7	142,016	9.0
1949-50	62,391	22.5	214,407	51.0
1950-51	60,786	— 2.6	260,544	21.5
1951-52	87,053	43.2	274,314	5.3
1952-53	75,703	—13.0	258,772	— 5.7
1953-54	94,523	24.9	272,637	5.4
1954-55	109,571	15.9	310,314	13.8
1955-56	107,113	— 2.2	278,203	—10.3
1956-57	106,139	— .09	335,070	12.4



percentage of special students in 1956-57 decreased slightly from the former year, but not as much as in 1955-56 compared to the previous year. On the other hand, adult enrollments increased by 12.4 per cent compared to a decrease of 10.3 the previous year. In some parts of the country there has been a trend for persons beyond the average college age to become classified and work toward the associate's degree. It may take them several years to accomplish this purpose. This writer, for example, recalls the graduation in a junior college in a city of about 12,000 inhabitants in which the average age of 240 graduating students was 29 years. Many of these students had studied part-time for from four to six years as classified students in order to obtain a full two-year college education. If this should become a stronger trend across the country, it is possible that reporting by categories would change considerably. Is there a trend for older adults to enroll in well-organized curriculums in place of taking hit and miss subjects, and to work for associate's degrees instead of entertaining no particular educational objective? In some communities this is a definite trend. How far it may get throughout the country remains to be seen.

Table IX shows the distribution of enrollments with respect to the size of the public and private junior colleges and totals for both types. While there were only eight public colleges with enrollments of less than 50 in the previous year, there are 11 reported in this issue, largely due to newly organized institutions. On the other hand, private colleges numbered 33 last year with less than 50 students; this year there are only 26. In the public colleges for last year there were 50 with enrollments

between 1,000 and 1,999; this year there are 63 and the private colleges remain at the same number of 13. Public colleges with enrollments over 9,000 increased from 13 to 18 this year compared to last year. In round numbers, the average enrollment for all institutions in 1955-56 was 1,205; this year it is 1,334. For public colleges in the previous year the average enrollment was 1,881; this year it is 2,059. For private colleges, this year the average enrollment is 332 compared to 303 in the previous year.

TABLE IX

*Distribution of Size of Enrollment*

Enrollment	Public	Private	Total
1- 49	11	26	37
50- 99	23	49	72
100- 199	19	63	82
200- 299	21	51	72
300- 399	34	28	62
400- 499	20	11	31
500- 599	29	10	39
600- 699	22	6	28
700- 799	21	5	26
800- 899	12	3	15
900- 999	9	3	12
1000-1999	63	13	76
2000-2999	27	5	32
3000-3999	15	0	15
4000-4999	10	0	10
5000-5999	6	1	7
6000-6999	6	0	6
7000-7999	5	0	5
8000-8999	5	0	5
Over 9000	18	0	18
No data	1	1	2
Total	377	275	652

## JUNIOR COLLEGE FACULTIES

Combined full-time and part-time members of faculties for 1956-57 reached an all time high with 30,651. Full-time members increased from

13,818 to 15,718, and part-time teachers increased from 13,175 to 14,933. This increase of 3,658 full-time and part-time teachers in one year highlights one of the most critical issues in all higher education. It is likely that we shall not be able to keep

drastic measures are adopted at the earliest possible time.

#### TYPES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

Types of junior colleges in respect to control are 377 public or tax supported and 275 privately controlled or church-related. Table X shows the distribution of control among the non-tax supported junior colleges.

The co-educational junior college is the prevailing type in respect to distribution by sex. There are 529 institutions of this type, 74 junior colleges for women, and 49 for men. In terms of the number of years in which the colleges are organized, the two-year institution is by far the leading type with 607; there are 18 organized under the four-year plan (grades 11 through 14), 14 organized under the three-year type, and three offering one year of education. Generally speaking, in co-educational public junior colleges men outnumber women about two to one.

TABLE X

Among the private and church-related colleges the breakdown is as follows:

Independent, non-profit .....	88
Baptist Colleges .....	29
Catholic Colleges .....	62
Lutheran Colleges .....	16
Methodist Colleges .....	30
Presbyterian Colleges .....	11
Proprietary Colleges .....	6
Others* .....	33
Total .....	275

pace in the education of good teachers with the increasing enrollments unless

\* These represent about 20 denominational bodies and the YMCA.

TABLE XI

#### Regional Accreditation

	Public		Private		Total No. of Colleges	Percentage Regionally Accredited
	No. of Colleges	Accredited	No. of Colleges	Accredited		
Middle States ....	43	28	54	21	97	50.5
New England ....	2	0	33	18	35	51.4
North Central ....	164	68	70	22	234	38.4
Northwest .....	23	18	5	2	28	71.4
Southern .....	76	57	98	54	174	63.8
Western .....	63	58	6	2	69	86.9
Totals.....	371	229	266	119	637	

REGIONAL ACCREDITATION OF JUNIOR  
COLLEGES

Table XI will show the reader the number of public and private colleges and the totals, including percentages, which are accredited by the six regional accrediting associations. These data are for the United States only. The variations between regions is striking and shows the need for junior colleges to take immediate steps to correct this defect in some states. If the reader wishes to pursue this phase of investigation a little further, we suggest that he may study accreditation of colleges by states. The list of junior colleges in the first sections of the *Directory* affords information on this item. It is possible that some junior colleges were regionally accredited in the late fall of

1957 but were not so reported to the Washington office in time to be included in the *Directory*.

## ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP

Some gains have been made in the membership of the Association during the year 1957. There are 475 active members compared to 462 last year, and 7 provisional members compared to 6 in 1956. By glancing over the list of colleges in Table I, the reader will find that a considerable number of states have 100 per cent membership and several have almost this percentage.\*

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\* Tables I, II, and III appear in the January, 1958, issue of the *Junior College Journal*, pp. 279-81.



## Recent Writings... **JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS**

JOHN W. STORMONT, *The Economics of Secession and Coercion, 1861*. (Victoria, Texas: The Victoria Advocate Publishing Company, 1957.) Pp. 148.

Sixteen years ago historian Benjamin B. Kendrick startled his colleagues by declaring that the South had always been and continued to be an economic colony of the imperialistic North.<sup>1</sup> Nine years later, C. Vann Woodward came to a similar conclusion as applied to the years 1877-1913.<sup>2</sup> Few other scholars, however, have examined this provocative idea. Its implications are profound for an understanding of American issues, both current and past. Critically needed are detailed analyses of the idea at various points of our history.

John W. Stormont has supplied just such an analysis. Dealing with the secession years of 1860-1861, he set out to ascertain two things: (1) How profitable was the South to the North? (2) What

role did that profitableness play in the North's determination to resolve the secession crisis? His search for answers is guided by a conviction that the competition of various economic interests "for profits produces competition for control of government" (p. 2). In relation to the subject matter at hand, Stormont holds that "the causes of secession were in large measure economic and that the chief economic cause was the threat to slave property in the election of a Republican as President . . ." (p. 21).

His chief factual findings follow:

1. "... the wealth of the eleven southern states was something over five billion dollars and . . . it was not much short of one-third of the national total" (p. 34).
2. The same states represented an annual income of over \$765 millions or nearly 19 per cent of total national income.
3. "... the South furnished the North and the foreign trade with between \$250,000,000 and \$300,000,000 worth of materials and . . . she bought that amount of goods and services every year in return" (p. 66).
4. The South purchased annually from the West goods valued at \$38 millions.
5. Annual southern purchases from the North and the East amounted to \$150 millions.

Altogether, then, the South was an important market for northern goods as

<sup>1</sup> See Benjamin B. Kendrick, *Journal of Southern History* (Jan., 1942).

<sup>2</sup> See C. Vann Woodward, *Origins of the New South, 1877-1913* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press for the Littlefield Fund for Southern History of the University of Texas, 1951), Chapter XI, "The Colonial Economy."

well as an important source of raw materials for northern industry. On the eve of secession, the South found itself playing the classic role of colony to the financially and industrially stronger North. Only now, the colonial status was widely resented.

Formation of the confederate government in December, 1860—a month after Lincoln's election—endangered the historic economic dependency of the South upon the North. Unpaid southern debts piled up in northern counting houses; profitable trade was being increasingly diverted from New York to confederate New Orleans; federal revenues sank as the South withheld customs duties. These economic pressures, notes Stormont, "would not have allowed Lincoln's government to wait much longer . . ." (p. 125).

Lincoln did not tarry; indeed, says Stormont, the President's policy of coercion had long before been determined by the economic interests composing the Republican Party. The farmers demanded a free land policy in the face of southern opposition; shipping and railroad interests expected Republican subsidies—which they got; manufacturers would not compromise their call for a high tariff; financial interests connected banking reforms with a Republican victory, while the foreign-born of the Northwest identified Republicanism and free land. All these groups gained their demands through Lincoln's successful coercion policy. The granting of these demands "meant a greater exploitation of the South by the industrial, commercial, and financial groups of the North" (p. 135).

"The economic stake of the North," concludes Stormont, "made it out of the

question that the South could be surrendered in 1861" (p. 139). "This is not to say," he adds, "that the economic worth of the South to the North was the sole reason for preserving the Union in 1861."

Stormont's well-written work is a fine contribution to what may be hoped to be a growing field of interest on the part of historians. Social scientists will find it an invaluable aid in understanding "the problem of the South." At a time when cant and slogans are too often mistaken reliable for knowledge, Stormont has given us a penetrating miniature portrait of modern society in crisis. We need many more like it.

MEYER WEINBERG

WOOLF, MAURICE D., AND WOOLF, JEANNE A. *Remedial Reading: Teaching and Treatment*. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957.) Pp. viii + 24. \$5.75.

In writing *Remedial Reading: Teaching and Treatment*, Maurice and Jeanne Woolf of Kansas State College have brought together a large part of the available information on the treatment and teaching of pupils with reading difficulties. The book gives the impression of being a scholarly treatise on the psychological causes of reading disabilities as well as an adequate presentation of practical and usable methods of diagnosing and treating reading deficiencies at all levels.

It could be a useful book as a text for teacher training courses in the psychology of reading, in counseling and guidance, or in remedial and developmental reading courses as such. Also it could be useful as a planning guide for setting up new

remedial or developmental reading programs in school systems or as a helpful aid to programs already in progress. It is timely in that the need is being felt in junior as well as senior colleges for a guide in getting up developmental reading programs.

The nine chapters of the book include adequate discussions of the causes of reading problems; the psychological importance of motivation in reading; the harmful effects of frustration versus the wholesome effects of success; the importance of the use of tests to determine readiness, interests, aptitudes, abilities, and physical defects; testing techniques and methods; counseling and recording; methods and materials for teaching at the various levels; group and individual procedures; methods of recording and evaluating gains; and practical suggestions for setting up the total program properly staffed.

Case studies add much to the interest and to the practical applicability of the suggested methods of diagnosis and treatment being used by the authors. Emphasis is placed upon the importance of understanding and treating the whole personality, the importance of conversation and discussion along with, or as a part of, the reading instruction and practice, and on the importance of non-directive as well as directive counseling.

Readiness for reading and an adequate primary foundation in reading before the intermediate and junior high work begins is not overemphasized, nor is the importance of continuation of reading instruction through high school and college. The suggested solution is the integration of reading instruction with the English classes, and the cooperation of English

teachers with the reading clinicians in working together for pupil progress and success in the field of reading with the idea of the probability of the feeling of adequacy and success being carried over into other areas of personality development.

The detailed plans for workshops for the in-service training of reading teachers which are included in the book could be usable as a means of relieving the shortage of qualified reading teachers. A good bibliography of supplementary books for further study in the field is also included. The appendixes give valuable listings of books of high interest value for retarded readers.

On the whole, the book well deserves a place in the library of every reading clinic for frequent reference and for continuous re-evaluation of progress in meeting the needs of pupils with reading difficulties.

RUTH DUNCAN

WING, LEONARD. *Natural History of Birds—A Guide to Ornithology* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956).

This new book in its first edition should be popular in college courses in bird study and for general reading by the limited number of readers who have an interest in the subject. The book includes 475 pages of text with lists of suggested readings at the end of each chapter. There are 20 pages of reference material, arranged in author alphabetic sequence, to books and monographs issued by private individuals, magazines, universities, state department bulletins and bulletins of the federal government listing some old and some new material available to the reader. There is also a page of periodi-



cals dealing with the subject of ornithology. These periodicals go back in origin as far as 1854. The author cites in the body of the text the sources of the authority of his statements and opinions and seems to have a complete knowledge of the whole field of material printed on the subject. The references to current and recent available study reports are impressive.

Appendix II is a very necessary listing of "Bird Orders and Families of the World." Without this list much of the text would be meaningless. Appendix III gives the listing of the official bird of each state in the United States. Appendix IV contains a 12-page glossary which gives a succinct definition of all technical terms used in the body of the text. This appendix must be used constantly by the reader even if he has had general college biology and an adequate course in comparative anatomy. An ordinary bird-lover without technical training would soon be lost without constant use of this glossary.

The first two chapters of the book might discourage a casual reader but subsequent chapters are relatively simple and interesting. Chapter I is an attempt to substitute some thinking of the type popular with Socrates in making assumptions as a substitute for scientific knowledge. The author is nowhere dogmatic in as-

suming all knowledge but the diagram on page 7 might impress an inexperienced reader with the idea that what is there presented is scientific data rather than popular assumption of many careful scientists. This diagram or its essential equivalent is to be found in several current college textbooks and appears to be a common and accepted answer to our present state of ignorance.

The titles of succeeding chapters indicate a very wide mastery of almost all phases of interest in bird study, and a careful reading and study of the text material of these chapters leaves the student with a feeling of desire for more study in every aspect of bird life. Constant reference to older and current data dealing with research in these areas of study gives an impression of up-to-dateness and the need for more careful research. Much of the data of these studies are compressed into helpful tables and graphs giving the trends of current knowledge and opinion. Some of the charts, however, need amplification for clarity beyond that given. A teacher using this book as a text would need to be acquainted with much of the reference material in order to give adequate answers to all student questions.

VERNON E. WOOD

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